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ABSTRACT

This report is divided into a series of "snapshots" that form a "portrait" of the status of Hispanics in the U.S. educational system. Chapter 1 introduces the situation of Hispanics in U.S. education. Chapter 2 provides a brief summary of Hispanic demographics, and chapter 3 covers the condition of Hispanic children from pre-kindergarten through grade 12. Chapter 4 summarizes data on the representation of Latinos as elementary and secondary school teachers and principals. Chapter 5 summarizes Hispanic postsecondary and adult educational status, and chapter 6 identifies policy implications of the findings. This look at the educational status of Hispanic Americans shows that more than 30 years after enactment of the major civil rights laws, U.S. society has yet to approach the goal of equal educational opportunity for all Americans. The disparity in education for Hispanic children begins at an early age, and Hispanic students who have fallen behind by middle school or high school tend to leave school before high school graduation. Some enter the work force with little preparation, while others become discouraged and chronically unemployed. Each chapter contains endnotes. (Contains 91 figures.) (SLD)

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Status and Prospects

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State of Hispanic America 1998

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The NCLR Task Force on Education

The National Council of La Raza (NCLR) Task Force on Education is an initiative designed to develop and refine a Latino-focused policy and programmatic agenda addressing the debate on "excellence in education." The Task Force will oversee efforts to conduct research, policy analysis, and advocacy on education reform issues that have the greatest potential for improving the educational outcomes of Latinos. The Task Force will also develop programmatic recommendations to guide NCLR and its affiliates as they implement education reform programs. The Task Force will oversee the following activities:

Conduct applied research and policy analysis to inform its policy positions, programmatic activities, and advocacy strategies.

Commission brief papers and/or panel presentations from education experts and practitioners on education reform issues and their impact on Hispanics.

Convene roundtable discussions with Latino and non-Latino researchers, practitioners, and outside experts to address specific education reform issues to determine their implications for the Latino community, as well as develop policy positions and identify "best practices" from a Latino perspective.

Develop public policy products, including the principal product, *A Latino Education Policy and Program Agenda* (working title); an update of NCLR's report entitled *Latino Education: Status and Prospects, State of Hispanic America 1998*; issue briefs on education reform; and an Advocate's Guide for community and parental involvement in education reform activities.

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LATINO EDUCATION
Status and Prospects

STATE OF HISPANIC AMERICA 1998

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Sonia M. Pérez, NCLR Director of Research, organized, edited, and prepared the report for publication, and contributed to several chapters. Charles Kamasaki, Senior Vice President for the Office of Research, Advocacy and Legislation (ORAL), contributed to several sections of the report. Cecilia Muñoz, ORAL Vice President, provided information for the section on immigrants and education. Particularly in developing Chapter VI, NCLR relied heavily on and excerpted extensively from a draft report prepared by Emily G. McKay, President of MOSAICA: The Center for Nonprofit Development and Pluralism, for NCLR and the President's Advisory Commission on Educational Excellence for Hispanic Americans.

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Foreword

In our travels around the country, we have seen schools that work well, and those that don't. Schools that work well demonstrate a deep commitment to the belief that all children can learn. In these schools, teachers are committed, parents are involved, and school officials hold themselves accountable for achieving positive results. And, not surprisingly, Hispanic children in such schools, by every measurable standard, are learning and achieving.

One often finds such schools in unusual places. In the Calexico Unified School District along the California-Mexico border, 98% of kindergartners enter school knowing little or no English. By fourth grade, nearly all are in English-language classrooms. About 80% of the district's students go on to college, 20% to four-year institutions; all this in the county with the lowest per-capita income in the state of California.

But, to our dismay, we have also seen far too many under-financed, overcrowded schools in which Latino children do not have access to current materials, computers, or even basic school supplies; schools in which Hispanic children are taught by teachers who are unprepared or apathetic; schools in which Latino parents are deterred and even excluded from participating in their children's education. We have seen school officials who, despite protestations to the contrary, apparently believe that Hispanic students are doomed to failure. In these schools, not surprisingly, Latino children are not learning, as reflected in high rates of grade retention, low test scores, and high dropout rates.

Successful schools like those in Calexico provide irrefutable proof that Latino children can meet and exceed the highest educational standards. They demonstrate that schools with sufficient resources and commitment can successfully educate Hispanic students, including those who come from disadvantaged backgrounds and those who first come to school speaking little or no English. Most importantly, they show that the crisis in Hispanic education is occurring not because Latino students are failing in school, but because the schools are failing these students.

Currently, about three in 10 Latinos live below the poverty level and, even more dramatically, two in five Hispanic children are growing up poor. Hispanics have higher poverty rates than Black or White Americans. While many other factors are involved, the single most important predictor of economic opportunity and poverty status in this society is educational attainment. The nation's Hispanic population has gained strength in many areas over the past decade, including vigorous participation in the labor force, growth in Latino-owned businesses and purchasing power, and a strengthened middle class. Much of this success can be attributed to aggressive efforts by the Hispanic community itself to assert its interests across a wide range of issues. Increasingly, the Latino community is a key player on a broad range of public policy issues, ranging from "traditional" issues like civil rights and immigration to newer issues such as trade and tax policy.

As this report shows, however, we continue to struggle with perhaps the single most important issue on our community's agenda – the persistent failure of the education system to educate Latino children. Denial of full educational opportunity for Latinos begins at a young age. Hispanics are the least likely of all children to be included in early education programs, which are critical for appropriate learning and development. At the elementary and middle school levels, Hispanic children are especially likely to score poorly on important achievement tests and assessments of educational progress, particularly in reading and math. By high school, 15 to 17-year-old Hispanic adolescents are the most likely of all students to be below grade level and the least likely to graduate from high school and enter college. Hispanics are also half as likely as their non-Hispanic White peers to receive a bachelor's degree, and less than one-third as likely to earn an advanced degree. So, once Latinos get behind, they are likely to fall further and further behind their peers each year – without any kind of educational "safety net" in place.

Currently, Hispanics constitute about 10% of the U.S. workforce. More than one-third of the nation's 30 million Latinos are under 18 years of age; 85% of these young people are U.S. citizens. Our country's future economic security and status as an international leader is dependent to a large extent on whether we can improve the educational status of Hispanic Americans. Over the next several decades, Hispanics will constitute more than 40% of net, new labor force entrants. As the "baby boom" generation retires, the health of the Social Security and Medicare systems — not to mention every other government service from defense and law enforcement to highways and national parks – increasingly will be dependent on the tax contributions of today's Latino school children. Moreover, our ability to capitalize on the potential of the domestic Hispanic population as a "bridge community" in an increasingly globalized economy is threatened if we do not reverse current educational trends.

Young Latinos are the nation's future workers, taxpayers, and leaders – a source of creativity, energy, ideas, and potential to be realized. At the moment, their path to economic prosperity and full participation in American society seems to be dictated by whether they are lucky enough to fall into one of the few school systems which will serve them well. The nation's social and economic future should not be left to chance.

Maintaining a strong economy which assures a solid and stable standard of living for all Americans requires a purposeful – not random – approach to education. Fortunately, our economic future does not have to be left to chance; it can and will be shaped by the policy and program choices we make as a society.

We're willing to do our share. We formed a Task Force on Education to develop a "road map" of policy and program recommendations to guide policy makers, the Latino community, and our own organization as we move beyond discussions of the problem and toward finding and implementing solutions. Through this report, and a series of upcoming activities overseen by our Task Force on Education, the National Council of La Raza will develop, promote, and help implement an education agenda that is "actionable," effective, and can ensure our country's economic prosperity and position of international leadership through the new millennium.

Raul Yzaguirre President NCLR	Audrey Alvarado Co-Chair, NCLR Task Force on Education	Herminio Martinez Co-Chair, NCLR Task Force on Education

I. Introduction

BACKGROUND

Years ago, there were few published reports documenting the educational status of Hispanic children, in part because many of the nation's major research surveys, including the Decennial Census, simply failed to collect any specific information on Latinos. In 1980, the Census began to collect Hispanic data; around that time or soon thereafter, the major educational research surveys included Latino-specific data for the first time. However, even when data were collected, sample sizes were often insufficient to assure reliability, and Hispanic data were not always disaggregated and/or published. As a result, even the most well-informed policy maker or advocate did not have access to basic information on the educational status of Hispanic Americans.

Beginning in the early 1980s, the National Council of La Raza published a series of statistical reports on Hispanic education. Initially pieced together from a wide variety of disparate sources, this series marked NCLR's attempt to inform policy debates on education by including in a single, user-friendly volume the most recent, reliable, and policy-relevant information on the educational condition of Latino children.

This report is the fifth in the series. It is divided into a series of "snapshots" which, taken together, form a "portrait" of the status of Hispanics in the educational system. Chapter Two provides a brief summary of Hispanic demographics. Chapter Three covers the condition of Hispanic children from pre-kindergarten through the 12th grade. Chapter Four summarizes data on the representation of Latinos as elementary and secondary school teachers and principals. Chapter Five provides a summary of Hispanic postsecondary and adult educational status. Chapter Six identifies policy implications.

This report is the first publication prepared under the auspices of the NCLR Task Force on Education. The Task Force, created by the NCLR Board of Directors in April 1997, is charged with the responsibility of developing a comprehensive, Latino-focused education policy and program agenda. The Task Force expects to issue a final report in late 1998 or early 1999.

This report is designed for education policymakers, community-based organizations and other education advocates, and lay audiences. Throughout the report, wherever possible, the latest published data available are cited, and every attempt is made to present the information in clear, usable, non-technical formats. The report is not intended to be comprehensive or exhaustive. Instead, it seeks to highlight the most important, policy-relevant, and commonly-cited aspects of the educational condition of Latinos. Researchers and others requiring more detailed information should consult the endnotes for access to source materials and data bases.

RECENT HISTORY, CURRENT STATUS

The earliest reports in the field of Hispanic education were based on small surveys of individual schools or school districts, case study research, and testimony before Congressional Committees or government agencies such as the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights. Notwithstanding their heavy reliance on personal testimony and anecdotes, a number of studies published in the 1960s and 1970s presented persuasive evidence of an educational crisis in the Latino community. They documented dropout rates among Mexican Americans of 80% or more in some Texas schools, high rates of school segregation throughout the Southwest approaching those experienced by African Americans in the South, and a complete failure of public school systems in the Northeast, Midwest, or South Florida to accommodate the educational needs of a large and growing population of Puerto Rican and Cuban American children.

These conditions were perhaps unsurprising at a time when Latinos constituted barely more than 5% of the total U.S. population, and were viewed largely as a "regional" phenomenon. The undereducation of Hispanics was also viewed through a prism which reflected the values and perceptions of the times – concepts of diversity and the notion of a globalized, post-industrial economy were virtually absent from policy debates on education. Moreover, even those concerned about these issues may have been deterred from taking action by the absence of solid data documenting the scope of the problem.

Since the 1960s, the nation has experienced a civil rights revolution which has outlawed discrimination in public accommodations and services (including schools), employment, housing, and the electoral process. There is an enhanced appreciation for the economic value of education in an increasingly technological society. Furthermore, greater public attention is being focused on the nation's large and growing Hispanic population. Given these trends, one might have expected that the latest educational data would show steady, significant improvement in the educational attainment of Latinos.

As this report demonstrates, however, the portrait of Hispanic education today is decidedly mixed. The majority of Hispanics were born in the U.S., are high school graduates, and are employed, but their education and economic standing – and their prospects for future upward mobility – differ markedly from those of other Americans. Two key indicators bear this out. First, while the percentages of both White and Black students completing high school have converged in recent years at almost 90%, only about 60% of their Latino peers now approach that mark. Second, Hispanics have the highest poverty rate of all major racial/ethnic groups; in 1997, 29% lived below the poverty line. NCLR believes, and the research demonstrates, that these two indicators are closely connected.

The following chapters document that the disparity in education among Hispanic and other American children begins at an early age. At the elementary school level, Hispanic students tend to score lower than their peers on important standardized tests that measure reading, writing, and math skills. Middle and high school data also point to similar trends; what is more troubling is that Hispanic students who begin to fall or have fallen behind at this stage are likely to leave school before high school graduation – and are effectively disconnected from academic institutions. Some enter the work force with limited preparation and poor prospects for economic success; others become discouraged, chronically unemployed, idle, or follow other undesirable or unlawful paths. An unexpectedly large number of the most enterprising and persistent dropouts return to school, often through programs offered by community-based organizations.

At the college and university level, similar issues are present. Latino students matriculate at a significantly lower rate than non-Hispanic students; retention and graduation rates are similarly discouraging. Taken together, these indicators result in a troubling portrait of Latino educational progress: more than one-third of Latino students do not complete high school, only one-half of the Hispanic population has a high school diploma, and only about one in ten Hispanics is a college graduate.

The consequences for the Hispanic community and for society at large are serious, and growing. In part because of their poor academic preparation and insufficient education levels, Latinos tend to work in low-paying sectors of the economy with unfavorable possibilities for either job growth or upward mobility. Compared to other workers, their earnings and income levels are low and their unemployment rates are high.

It is encouraging that, despite their limited education and work force preparation, Hispanics are very likely to be in the workforce. In fact, Hispanic men are more likely than other groups of male workers to be in a job or looking for employment, while Hispanic women have begun to increase their labor force participation rate. It is equally discouraging that Latinos' high level of work effort is not rewarded with commensurately high incomes, largely because of low levels of educational attainment.

When placed against the backdrop of the current economy and the crucial links between education and economic status, such measures take on new meaning, both for the Hispanic community and for the nation as a whole. From the Latino perspective, improvements in educational attainment are virtually certain to translate into enhanced job prospects and increased economic well-being. It is for this reason that public opinion polls of Hispanics regularly show that education is the community's single highest priority.

In addition, on a symbolic level, the nation's commitment to equal opportunity simply cannot be realized unless the educational outcomes of Hispanics are improved. After all, the theoretical right to apply for a job is meaningless if one does not have the qualifications for the position. The abstract right to buy a house in a neighborhood of one's choosing cannot be exercised unless one has the income to pay the mortgage.

Furthermore, given the wide geographic distribution of the Hispanic population and its projected growth, the benefits of improved education are likely to extend beyond the Latino community to other sectors of the economy, including the key states in which Hispanics traditionally have tended to live, as well as the new labor markets, like the meat industry in the upper Midwest and the poultry business in the South, which have recruited and profited from the diligence of Latino workers. At a time when Hispanics constitute a growing proportion of the labor force, the nation's ability to maintain and improve its standard of living is increasingly dependent on its ability to assure a quality education for all of its children, including those of Latino descent.

As this report shows – more than 30 years after enactment of the major civil rights laws – this society has yet to approach the goal of equal educational opportunity for all Americans.

II. Demographic Profile

A. INTRODUCTION

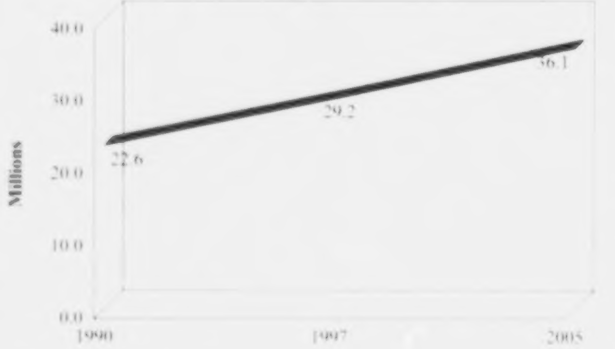
The educational status of Hispanics is best understood in the context of the population's overall demographic and socioeconomic characteristics. The Hispanic population was estimated to total 29.2 million in 1997, which constituted 10.9% of the United States population.*[1] Hispanics are a diverse population, and the majority are native-born, high-school graduates, and employed. In addition, a growing number are college graduates and business owners. Most Hispanic households are formed by families and they continue to make gains in areas which will lead to greater economic stability; however, high poverty among Hispanic families, children, and workers, as well as low median family income levels, persist.

B. GROWTH

The Hispanic population has grown faster than the overall U.S. population since 1990 due to high birth rates and immigration levels. The percentage of Hispanics increased 29.2% from 1990 to 1997, while the overall U.S. population rose 7.3%, and the White and Black populations 5.8% and 10.9%, respectively, over the same period. This rapid growth in the Hispanic population is largely attributable to increased birth rates and a rise in the level of immigration. From 1990 to 1996, Hispanic women between the ages of 15 and 44 were estimated to average 106.3 births per 1,000 women, compared to 79.6 births for Black women and 65.6 births for White women. The net migration rate for Hispanics was 15.1 persons for every 1,000 over that same period, compared to 2.2 persons and 2.8 persons for the White and Black populations, respectively.[2]

Figure 2.1

The Growing U.S. Hispanic Population
1990, 1997, 2005



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census

Hispanics are projected to become the largest U.S. minority group by 2005. The Hispanic population is estimated to increase 23.3% between 1997 and 2005, to reach a level of 36.1 million, while the non-Hispanic Black population is expected to grow 9.9%, to 35.5 million, over the same period (see Figure 2.1).[3]

C. COMPOSITION AND AGE

Hispanics are an ethnically diverse and primarily U.S.-citizen population. In 1996, the Hispanic population was comprised of the following groups: Mexican-American, 63.4%; Puerto

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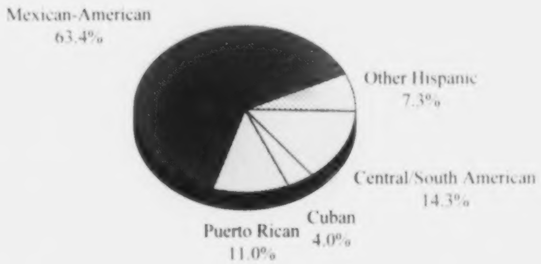
* These figures are for the U.S. mainland and do not include the estimated 3.8 million residents of Puerto Rico.

Rican, 11.0%; Cuban, 4.0%; Central and South American, 14.3%; and Other Hispanic, 7.3% (see Figure 2.2).[4] In addition, over two-thirds (69.0%) of U.S. Hispanics were U.S. citizens, according to 1996 data, 62.1% native-born,* and 6.9% naturalized, while less than one-third (31.0%) were foreign-born non-citizens. Among children, the data for that same year indicate that this proportion is greater: 87.0% of the Hispanic population under age 18 was native-born.[5]

Figure 2.2

Composition of the U.S. Hispanic Population

1996



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

Overall, Hispanics are much younger than non-Hispanics, and a large proportion are children. The median age for Hispanics was estimated at 26.5 years in 1997, while the median age estimates for Whites and Blacks were 36.0 years and 29.7 years, respectively. In addition, more than one-third (35.1%) of Hispanics were estimated to be under age 18 in 1997, compared to one-quarter (24.8%) of Whites and nearly one-third (31.7%) of Blacks.[6]

D. LOCATION

The Hispanic population is largely concentrated in certain areas of the country. In 1994, the five states with the largest Hispanic populations were: California, with a Hispanic population estimated at 8.9 million (34.3% of the total U.S. Hispanic population); Texas, 5.0 million (19.3%); New York, 2.5 million (9.6%); Florida, 1.9 million (7.2%); and Illinois, 1.1 million (4.0%).[7] The cities with the largest Hispanic populations in 1990 in each of these states were: Los Angeles, CA (1.4 million); Houston, TX (0.5 million); New York, NY (1.8 million); Miami, FL (0.2 million); and Chicago, IL (0.5 million).**[8]

Hispanics live primarily in central cities and in renter-occupied households. One-half (50.3%) of Hispanic households were located in central cities in 1996, and 91.0% were located in metropolitan statistical areas (MSAs), the majority (75.7%) with populations greater than 1.0 million.*** In addition, Hispanics are more likely to rent, and less likely to own homes, than Whites. In 1996, 58.8% of Hispanic households were renter-comprised, compared to 31.0% of White households.[9]

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* This proportion includes U.S.-born (56.2%), Puerto Rico (4.4%), and U.S. parents abroad (and outlying areas) (1.4%).

** City population data disaggregated by race and ethnicity are only available for 1990.

*** A Metropolitan Statistical Area is defined as a city with a population of at least 50,000, or a Census Bureau-defined urbanized area with a population of at least 50,000 and a total metropolitan population of at least 100,000.

E. FAMILY CHARACTERISTICS

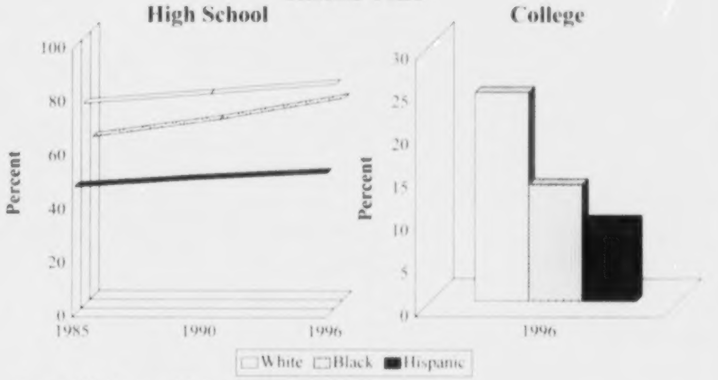
The majority of Hispanic families are married-couple families, but a large percentage are female-headed families. In 1996, over two-thirds (67.6%) of Hispanic families were headed by a married couple; however, over one-fourth (25.5%) were female-headed. In comparison, 81.3% of White families, and 46.1% of Black families, were married-couple families, respectively, and 14.1% and 46.8%, respectively, were female-headed families.*[10]

Hispanics have slightly larger families, and a higher percentage of families with children, than non-Hispanics. The average size of Hispanic families in 1996 was 3.95 persons, compared to 3.13 for White families and 3.56 for Black families. In addition, Hispanic families averaged 1.59 members under age 18, compared to 0.94 for White families and 1.37 for Black families.[11]

The large majority of persons who speak Spanish at home are also proficient in English. Almost three-fourths (74.0%) of the 17.3 million persons five years old and over who spoke Spanish at home in 1990 also spoke English "very well" or "well." Spanish-speakers accounted for more than one-half (54.5%) of the 31.8 million persons five years old and over who spoke a language other than English at home in 1990; the majority (86.2%) of the population spoke only English at home that same year.**[12]

Figure 2.3

Educational Attainment Levels
Persons 25 Years and Over
Selected Years



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

G. SOCIOECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS

Hispanics have made gains in education since 1990, but still have a smaller percent-

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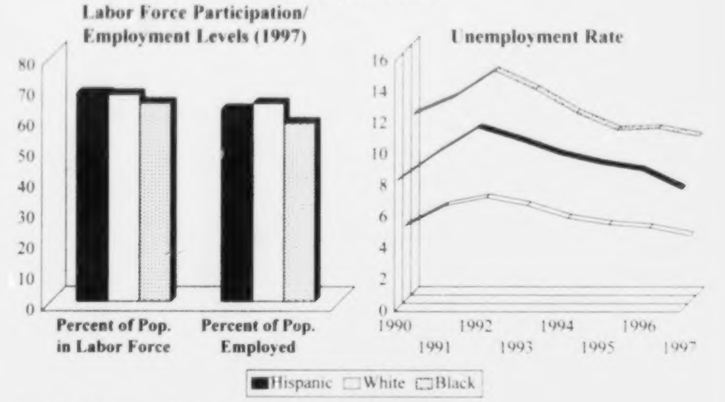
* As defined by the Bureau of the Census, "family household" refers to a household maintained by a family, a group of two or more persons related by birth, marriage, or adoption who reside together, and includes any unrelated persons who may be residing there.

** 1990 is the latest year for which language data are available.

age of graduates than Whites (see Figure 2.3). In 1996, over one-half (53.1%) of Hispanics 25 years old and over had graduated from high school and 9.3% had graduated from college, which represented an increase of 25.6% in the number of high school graduates, and an increase of 21.5% in the number of college graduates, since 1990, although the overall proportion of high school and college graduates remained about the same. In contrast, over four-fifths (82.8%) of Whites and almost three-fourths (74.3%) of Blacks 25 years old and over had completed high school in 1996, and 24.3% of Whites and 13.6% of Blacks had completed college. The number of White and Black high school graduates increased 10.9% and 25.4%, respectively, and the number of college graduates 17.1% and 34.5%, respectively, between 1990 and 1996.[13]

Figure 2.4

Labor Force Status
Selected Years

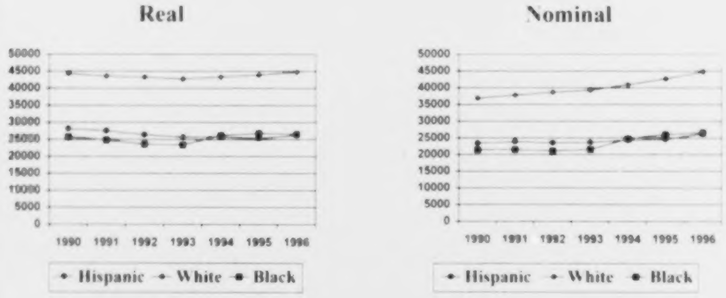

Labor Force Participation/ Employment Levels (1997)

Unemployment Rate

Source: U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Figure 2.5

Median Family Income
1990-1996

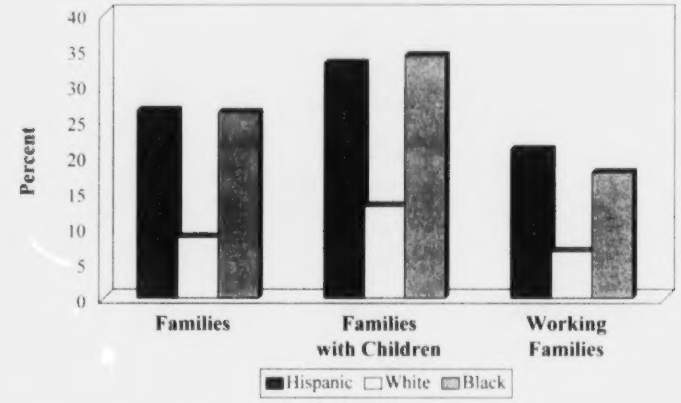

Real

Nominal

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census

Hispanics comprise a significant portion of the labor force, yet continue to experience sizable gender differences in rates of participation as well as higher rates of unemployment (see Figure 2.4). In 1997, 67.9% of the Hispanic population 16 years old and over, or 13.8 million persons, were in the civilian labor force, which was slightly more than for Whites or Blacks (67.5% and 64.7%, respectively). Furthermore, a greater percentage of Hispanic men 16 years old and over were in the labor force than White and Black men in 1997, 80.1% compared to 75.8% and 68.3%, respectively. Conversely, a smaller percentage of Hispanic women 16 years old and over were in the labor force than White and Black women, 56.1% compared to 59.5% and 61.7%, respectively. Despite the fact

Figure 2.6
Family Poverty
1996



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

that a comparable percentage of Hispanics, Whites, and Blacks were in the labor force in 1997, the unemployment rate for Hispanics was 7.7%, compared to 4.2% for White workers and 10.0% for Black workers.[14]

Hispanic median family income remains well below that of White families, and has decreased since 1990 (see Figure 2.5). Hispanic median family income was $26,179 in 1996, compared to $44,756 for White families and $26,522 for Black families. When accounting for inflationary increases in income, median income levels declined for Hispanic families from 1990 to 1996, and rose for both White and Black families. Median family income fell 6.9% for Hispanics, and increased 1.0% for Whites and 3.1% for Blacks, between 1990 and 1996.[15]

Poverty rates for Hispanic families, families with children, and working Hispanic families remain disproportionately high (see Figure 2.6). In 1996, more than one-quarter of both Hispanic and Black families lived in poverty (26.4% and 26.1%, respectively), while the poverty rate for White families was 8.6%. Moreover, approximately one-third of Hispanic (33.0%) and Black (34.1%) families with children under age 18 were poor, compared to 13.0% of comparable White families.[16] Finally, data show that poverty among working Hispanic families is a serious problem; one-fifth (20.6%) of Hispanic families with at least one worker were poor in 1995, compared to 17.5% of comparable Black families and 6.4% of comparable White families.[17]

A significant proportion of the Hispanic population, and an even larger percentage of the Hispanic poor, lived in areas defined as "ghettos" in 1990.* Nearly one-tenth (9.4%) of the total Hispanic population, or two million Hispanics, lived in ghettos in 1990, compared to 14.3% of Blacks and 1.0% of Whites. Furthermore, 19.1% of all poor Hispanics lived in ghettos in 1990, compared to 26.0% of the Black poor and 4.0% of the White poor.**[18]

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* "Ghetto" is defined in most poverty literature as an area in which the overall poverty rate in a census tract is greater than 40%. "The ghetto poor" then are those poor, of any race or ethnic group, who live in such poverty census tracts.

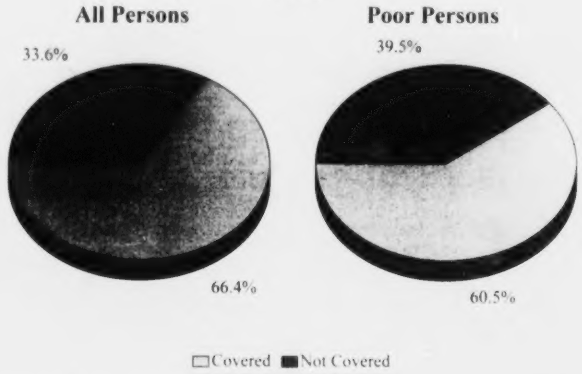
** 1990 is the latest year for which poverty census tract data are available.

A large percentage of Hispanics, especially Hispanics who are poor, lack health insurance coverage (see Figure 2.7). In 1996, one-third (33.6%) of Hispanics, and 39.5% of Hispanics living in poverty, were not covered by health insurance. In contrast, smaller percentages of Whites (14.4%) and Blacks (21.7%), and poor Whites (32.1%) and Blacks (26.9%), did not have health insurance.[19]

Figure 2.7

Health Insurance Coverage for Hispanics

1996



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

Hispanics have relatively low homeownership rates. More than two-fifths (42.8%) of Hispanic householders were homeowners in 1996, which was much lower than the national and White homeownership rates of 65.4% and 69.1%, respectively. The homeownership rate for Blacks was 44.1% that same year. While Hispanic homeownership was lower than for other groups, a larger percentage of both native-born and naturalized citizens were homeowners in 1996, 48.1% and 57.1%, respectively.[20]

The number of Hispanic-owned businesses continues to rise. In 1992, roughly 860,000 U.S. firms were owned by Hispanics, an increase of 76.1% since the last U.S. Census business survey in 1987. These firms generated over $76.8 billion in gross receipts in 1992, compared to $32.8 billion in 1987. Comparatively, the total number of U.S. firms increased 26.3%, from 13.7 million to 17.3 million, and total receipts approximately 67.0%, from $2.0 trillion to $3.3 trillion, over the same period.[21]

II. SUMMARY

This profile of the Hispanic community in the U.S. suggests that the continued high growth of the Hispanic population will remain an important factor in the overall demographic picture of the nation. In this regard, the gains made by Hispanics in recent years in educational attainment, income levels, and business ownership, relative to their economic standing in the 1980s, bode well for the economic future of the nation. Yet, relative to that of their White and Black counterparts, Hispanic progress has been slow and uneven. Educational attainment, family income, and homeownership rates are disproportionately low; while poverty rates and the number of Hispanics without health insurance are disproportionately high. As the U.S. approaches a new century, attention to these critical areas is urgently needed in order for Hispanics to succeed as students, workers, business people, and leaders. In particular, improving the educational levels and quality of Latino students will be a key predictor of future Hispanic economic status.

Endnotes:

1. Calculations made by NCLR based on U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Resident Population-Estimates by Age, Sex, Race, and Hispanic Origin*, Current Population Reports, PPL-57. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1997.
2. Ibid.
3. Ibid; and U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Population Projections of the United States by Age, Sex, Race, and Hispanic Origin: 1995 to 2050*, Current Population Reports, P25-1130. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1996.
4. U.S. Bureau of the Census, *The Hispanic Population in the United States: March 1996*, Current Population Reports, P20-502. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, December 1997.
5. Calculations made by NCLR based on U.S. Bureau of the Census, "The Foreign-Born Population: 1996," Current Population Reports, P20-494. Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, March 1997.
6. *Resident Population-Estimates by Age, Sex, Race, and Hispanic Origin*, op. cit.
7. Calculations made by NCLR based on U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Language Spoken at Home and Ability to Speak English for United States, Regions and States: 1990.*
8. Calculations made by NCLR based on U.S. Bureau of the Census, "Estimates of the Population of States by Race and Hispanic Origin: July 1, 1994," Current Population Reports, PPL-49. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1996.
9. U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1990 Census of Population.
10. Calculations made by NCLR based on U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Household and Family Characteristics: March 1996*, Current Population Reports, P20-495. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, June 1997.
11. Ibid.
12. Ibid.
13. Calculations made by NCLR based on U.S. Bureau of the Census, "Educational Attainment in the United States: March 1996," Current Population Reports, P20-493. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, July 1997; and U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Statistical Abstract of the United States: 1995*, Table No.238, from U.S. Bureau of the Census, U.S. Census of Population, U.S. Summary, PC80-1-C1 and Current Population Reports, Series P20-455, P20-459, P20-462, P20-465RV, P20-475; and unpublished data. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1995.
14. Bureau of Labor Statistics, "Employment status of the civilian noninstitutional population by sex, age, race, and Hispanic origin," *Employment and Earnings*, January 1998.
15. Calculations made by NCLR based on U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Money Income in the United States: 1996 (With Separate Data on Valuation of Noncash Benefits)*, Current Population Reports, P60-197. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1997.
16. Lamison-White, Leatha, U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Poverty in the United States: 1996*, Current Population Reports, P60-198. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1997.
17. Unpublished poverty data provided by Housing and Household Economic Statistics Division, U.S. Bureau of the Census, Fall 1996.
18. U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1990 Census of Population.

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19. U.S. Bureau of the Census, "Health Insurance Coverage: 1996," Current Population Reports, P60-199. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, September 1997.

20. U.S. Bureau of the Census, "Moving to America - Moving to Homeownership," Current Housing Reports, H121/97-2. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, September 1997.

21. U.S. Bureau of the Census, *1992 Economic Census: Survey of Minority-Owned Business Enterprises (Hispanic)*, MB92-2. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1996.

III.Pre-K Through 12

A. SCHOOL ENROLLMENT

1. OVERVIEW

In the fall of 1996, approximately 66.1 million students were enrolled in education institutions from pre-primary to the college level.[1] Latinos account for a large and growing proportion of that student population. Between 1975 and 1994, the percentage of White students declined at all school levels, while that of Black students grew from 14.5% to 16.0%, and that of Hispanic students grew from 6.5% to 13.0%.

Given that the Hispanic student population is growing both in absolute numbers and as a percentage of the total student population, it is increasingly critical that Hispanics obtain a high-quality education of adequate duration. However, while the academic progress and achievement of Latinos has increased in absolute terms, there continues to be a wide gap between Hispanics and their White counterparts in several significant areas.

2. PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION ENROLLMENT

a. Pre-primary and Kindergarten

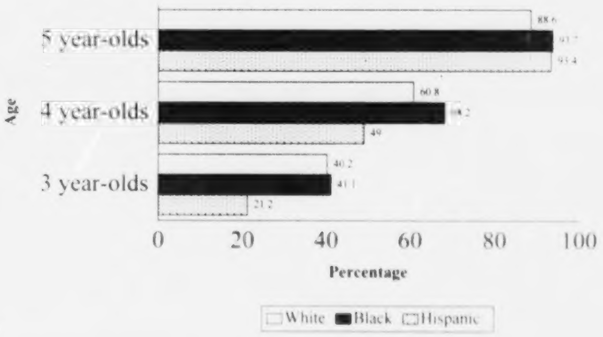
Today, children are especially likely to be enrolled in some type of pre-primary education program because their mothers are more likely than mothers from previous generations to be part of the workforce outside the home. Research indicates that participation in high-quality, early childhood education and care programs prepares children to learn when they enter kindergarten and first grade, and has long-term positive effects on educational outcomes for socially and economically disadvantaged youth.[2]

Despite the advantages of attending pre-primary education programs, statistics indicate that Latino children have consistently been less likely than their White and Black counterparts to be enrolled in such classes over the past two decades (see Figure 3.1 and 3.2).

- Among three-year-olds, four out of ten Whites (40.2%) and Blacks (41.1%) were enrolled in pre-primary programs, compared to two out of ten Hispanics (21.2%) (see Figure 3.1).
- Among four-year-olds, 60.8% of Whites, 68.2% of Blacks, and 49.0% of Latinos were enrolled in pre-primary programs (see Figure 3.1).

Figure 3.1

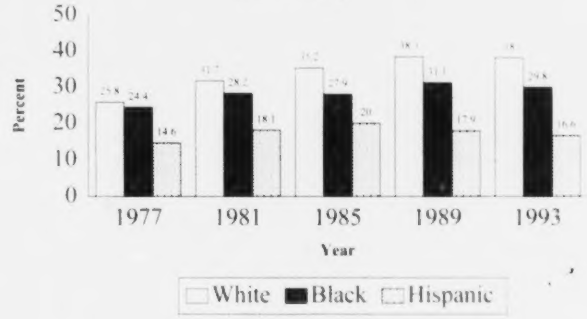
Enrollment in Preprimary Programs, 1995



Source: *The Condition of Education 1997*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, June 1997

Figure 3.2

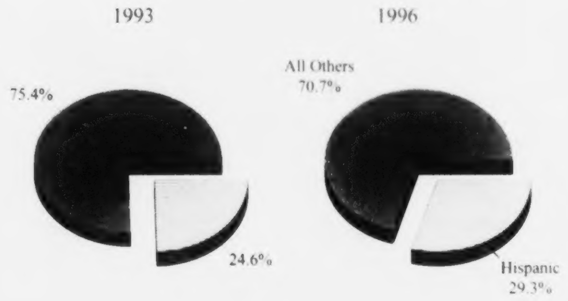
Preschool Enrollment 3 - 4 Year Olds
1977 - 1993



Source: *The Condition of Education 1995*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, June 1995

Figure 3.3

Poverty Rates for Children



Source: Poverty in the United States, U.S. Bureau of the Census, Washington, D.C. 1997

- At the kindergarten level the gap in enrollment rates closes, and the enrollment rate for Hispanics surpasses that of Whites. Among five-year-olds, 93.4% of Latinos and 93.7% of Blacks were enrolled in kindergarten compared to 88.6% of Whites (see Figure 3.1).

The differences in enrollment rates in pre-primary programs may be explained, in part, by studies that indicate that Hispanics prefer to leave their children in home-based child-care settings, even when there are no shortages in institutionalized child-care.[3] Research suggests that Hispanic parents tend to look to their families, instead of child care programs, to serve as caregivers for young children.[4] Additionally, in some cases, Hispanic parents may not be able to afford the tuition charged by the many programs that are privately run. The gap closes at the kindergarten level because such programs are run by the public school system, as well as by private institutions.

b. Head Start

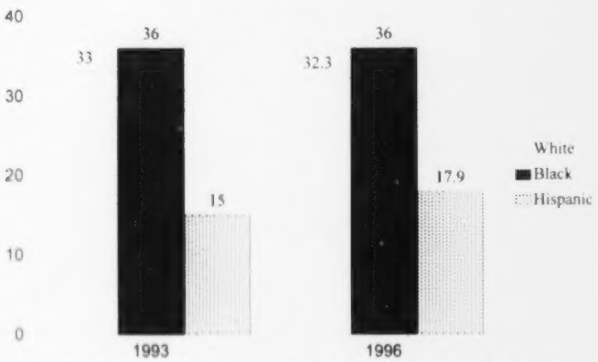
Head Start participation rates present an example of how important and effective federal education programs underserve the Latino population. Three- and four-year-olds are eligible to participate in Head Start if the family income is at or below the poverty level. With respect to Hispanics, the data demonstrate that while Latino children are overrepresented in families living in poverty, they are underrepresented in Head Start programs designed to remedy the detrimental effects of poverty on educational achievement.

In 1993, Census data indicated that Latino children constituted 24.6% of all children in poverty. Yet examination of Head Start data, taking into account the participation rates of the Puerto Rico island population and Migrant Head Start participants,[5] indicate that Latino children were only 15% of children enrolled in Head Start programs.

By 1996, the proportion of all children in the U.S. mainland (not including Puerto Rico) living at or below the poverty level who are Hispanic increased from 24.6% to 29.3%. During the same period, the proportion of all children participating in Head Start who are Hispanic increased slightly from 24% to 25.2%, suggesting an underrepresentation of Latino children in the program, relative to their eligibility. However, if island Puerto Ricans and migrant Hispanic children are excluded from these data, the proportion of all Latino children in Head Start programs only grew from 15% to 17.8% — resulting in an even greater level of underrepresentation (see Figures 3.3 and 3.4). This small increase in the participation of Latino children in Head Start programs is especially insufficient measured against the proportion of Latino children who lived below the poverty level; in 1996, two of every five Hispanic children (40.3%) were poor — the highest rate of child poverty of all racial/ethnic groups that year.*

Figure 3.4

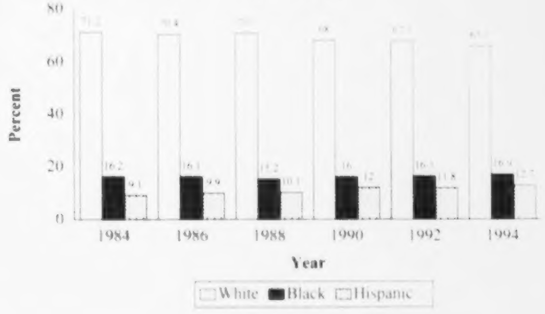
Head Start Participation Rates



Source: Head Start Statistical Fact Sheet, Administration for Children, Youth and Families, 1994. Head Start Statistical Fact Sheet, Administration for Children, Youth and Families, 1997.

Figure 3.5

Elementary and Secondary School Enrollment
1984 - 1994



Source: Elementary and Secondary School Civil Rghts Compliance Reports, Office of Civil Rights, U.S. Department of Education, 1984 - 1996

3. ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL ENROLLMENT

In the fall of 1994, approximately 31.5 million children were enrolled in elementary school (grades one through eight) and about 14.6 million were enrolled at the secondary level (grades nine through twelve). Overall, the enrollment of students increased by 3.3% between 1984 and 1994. Figure 3.5 shows that the minority student population, as a percentage of the total population, is increasing, while that of White students is decreasing. In 1994, White students accounted for slightly less than two-thirds of the population, as compared with just under three-fourths in 1984. Figure 3.6 provides the numbers and percentages for single grade enrollment in 1994.

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* Migrant students are not included in this calculation because they are typically served under the Migrant Head Start program.

4. PRIVATE SCHOOL ENROLLMENT

A comparison of private and public school enrollment rates for the last 30 years indicates that private school enrollment dropped 29.8%, while public school enrollment grew 8.8%. However, more recent data indicate that private school enrollment rates have increased for both the Black and Hispanic populations while decreasing for Whites. For example, in 1991, for persons three to 24 years old, 87.7% of Whites, 7.5% of Blacks, and 5.8% of Hispanics were enrolled in private schools. In 1994, for the same age group, 86.2% of Whites, 10.3% of Blacks, and 7.7% of Hispanics were enrolled in private schools (see Figure 3.7).

Figure 3.6

SINGLE GRADE ENROLLMENT FOR PERSONS THREE TO 24 YEARS OLD 1994

Number (thousands)	**1-4**	**5-8**	**9-10**	**10-12**
All Races	15,999	15,513	7,572	7,044
Whites	12,576	12,209	5,900	5,530
Blacks	2,578	2,508	1,273	1,160
Hispanics	2,117	2,045	974	900
Percentage				
All Races	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Whites	78.6%	78.7%	77.9%	78.5%
Blacks	16.1%	16.2%	16.8%	16.5%
Hispanics	13.2%	13.2%	12.9	12.8%

Source: *School Enrollment - Social and Economic Characteristics of Students: October 1994*, Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce, Washington, D.C. (1996)

Figure 3.7

PRIVATE SCHOOL ENROLLMENT FOR PERSONS THREE TO 24 YEARS OLD

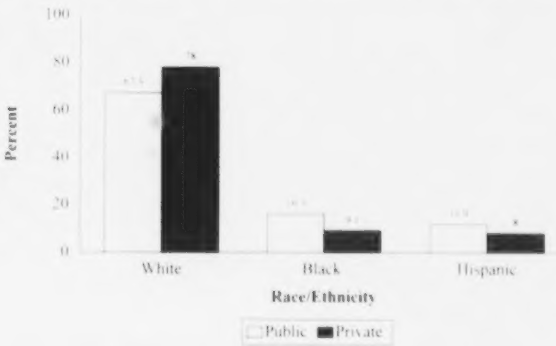
	1991	**1994**
White	87.7%	86.2%
Black	7.5%	10.3%
Hispanic	5.8%	7.7%

Sources: *School Enrollment, Social and Economic Characteristics of Students: October 1994 and October 1991*, Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce, Washington, D.C. (1996)

Additional data from the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) highlight similar findings. According to a 1993 survey of private schools (K-12), approximately 4.8 million students were enrolled in private schools and such students accounted for about 11.0% of the total student population.[6] A comparison between the private and public school enrollment rates that same year indicates that White students accounted for a larger percent of the student population in private schools than in public schools and that Blacks and Latinos accounted for a lower percent of the student population in private schools than in public schools (see

Figure 3.8

Private and Public Students by Race/Ethnicity, 1993



Source: *Private School Universe Survey*, 1993 - 94, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, May 1996.

Figure 3.8). In 1993, Whites comprised 78% of the private schools' population, compared to 67% of the public school population; Blacks constituted 9.1% of the student population in private schools, compared to 16.0% in public schools; and Hispanics accounted for 8.0% percent of the private school population, compared to 12.0% of the public school population.

B. ENROLLMENT BELOW MODAL GRADE

1. INTRODUCTION

"Modal grade" is defined as the year of school in which the largest proportion of a given age is enrolled. Below, modal grade data measure the degree to which children are retained in grade over their school careers. Information on grade retention is significant because it is the most important single predictor of a student's dropping out of school. For Hispanics, in particular, U.S. Census data on school enrollment demonstrate that, at critical points in their academic careers, Latinos are more likely to be retained in grade than Whites.

2. BELOW-MODAL-GRADE ENROLLMENT BY AGE AND RACE

In general, data on modal grade enrollment indicate that Hispanics are less likely than their White and Black classmates to fall behind in grade level while in the early stages of their schooling. However, in the latter stages of their academic progress, higher percentages of Latinos than Whites are enrolled below their modal grade level.

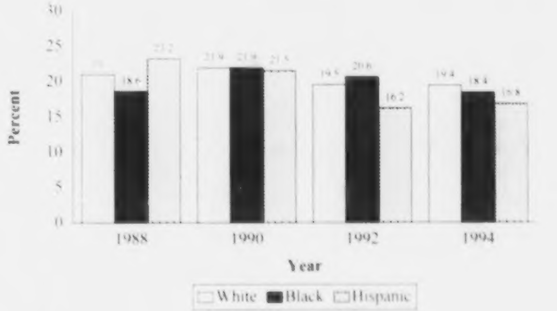
- Data for six-to-eight-year-olds demonstrate that below-modal grade enrollment rates have dropped for all groups between 1988 and 1994 (despite a slight increase in 1990 for Whites and Blacks) (see Figure 3.9). In particular, while Hispanic six-to-eight year-olds were more likely than Whites or Blacks to be below grade in 1988, by 1994 they were less likely to be retained in grade. In 1988, 23.2% of Hispanic six-to-eight-year-olds were enrolled below modal grade compared to 21.0% of Whites and 18.6% of Blacks. However, by 1994, the Hispanic rate decreased by 6.4 percentage points to 16.8%, while the rate for Whites decreased by 1.6 percentage points to 19.4%, and the rate for Blacks decreased by only 0.2 of a percentage point to 18.4%.
- Analysis of the data for other age groups indicates a reversal of the trend identified among six-to-eight-year-olds. For Hispanic nine-to 11-year-olds, the modal grade enrollment rates

dropped between 1988 and 1994, yet Latinos were more likely to be enrolled below grade level than Whites but less likely than Blacks (see Figure 3.10). In 1988, 37.0% of Hispanic nine-to-11-year-olds were enrolled below modal grade, compared to 27.6% of Whites and 33.1% of Blacks. By 1994, the rate for Hispanics aged nine to 11-years old decreased by 8.6 percentage points to 28.4%, yet this rate was still higher than the 25.8% rate for Whites. The rate for Blacks increased 2.0 percentage points from 33.1% to 35.1%.

- Among 12-to-14-year-olds, Hispanics were again more likely to be enrolled below modal grade than Whites and less likely than Blacks, although the rate for Latinos decreased between 1988 and 1994. In 1988, Hispanics were twice as likely as Whites to be enrolled below grade level (see Figure 3.11). While 45.0% of Hispanics were retained in grade, 27.2% of Whites and 37.6% of Blacks were enrolled below grade level. The data from 1994 indicate that the rate for Hispanics decreased by over 12.7 percentage points since 1988; however, Hispanics still have higher retention rates than Whites. In 1994, 32.3% of Latinos, 30.1% of Whites, and 36.1% of Blacks of this age group were retained in grade.

Figure 3.9

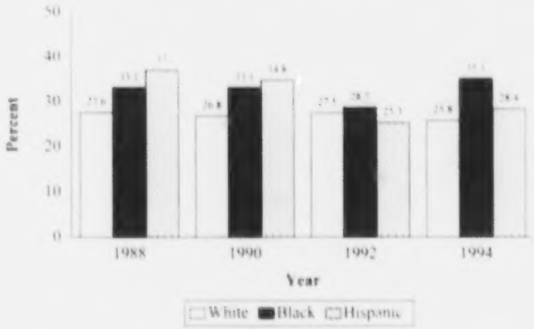
Enrollment Below Modal Grade 6-8-Year-Olds
1988 - 1994



Source: *School Enrollment - Social and Economic Characteristics of Students: October 1994*, Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce, September, 1996

Figure 3.10

Enrollment Below Modal Grade 9-11-Year-Olds
1988 - 1994



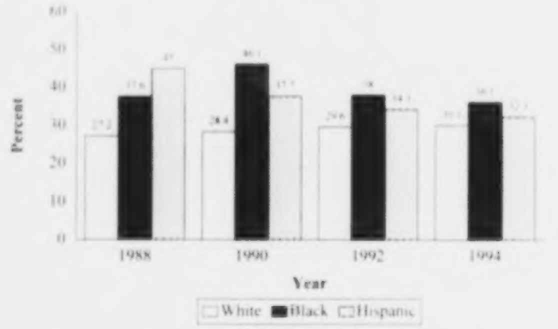
Source: *School Enrollment - Social and Economic Characteristics of Students: October 1994*, Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce, September 1996

- The data for the population group of 15-to-17-year-olds demonstrate a similar trend. In this case, however, Hispanics are more likely than both their White and Black counterparts to be behind in modal grade. In 1988, 36.8% of Latinos, 23.9% of Whites, and 38.4% of

Blacks between 15 and 17 years old were enrolled below grade level. In 1994, the rates were higher for both Latinos and Whites, but again, Hispanics were more likely to be retained in grade than any other group (see Figure 3.12). Two in five (39.9%) Latino students aged 15-17 were enrolled below grade level. This rate was 10.3 percentage points higher than that for Whites (29.6%), but only 2.2 percentage points above that for Blacks (37.7%).

Figure 3.11

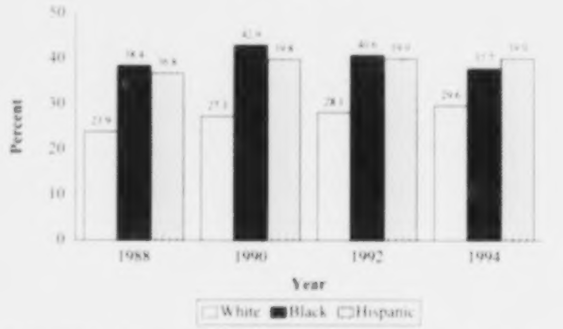
Enrollment Below Modal Grade 12-14-Year-Olds
1988 - 1994



Source: *School Enrollment - Social and Economic Characteristics of Students: October 1994*, Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce, September 1996.

Figure 3.12

Enrollment Below Modal Grade 15-17-Year-Olds
1988 - 1994



Source: *School Enrollment - Social and Economic Characteristics of Students: October 1994*, Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce, September 1996.

C. ENROLLMENT IN ACADEMIC PROGRAMS

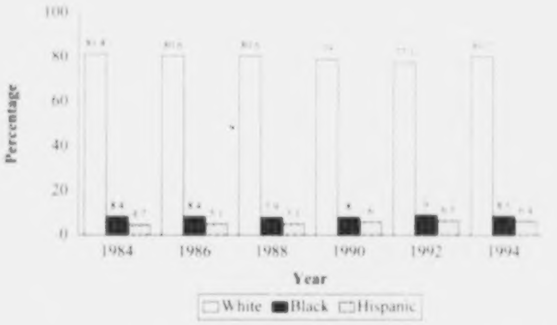
Statistics on participation rates in gifted and talented programs demonstrate that Latinos continue to be underrepresented in such programs even though their overall enrollment rates have increased (see Figure 3.13).

- In 1984, Whites accounted for 71.2% of the overall student population but made up 81.4% of the enrollment in the gifted and talented programs. Hispanics accounted for 9.1% of the total student population, but only 4.7% of students enrolled in gifted and talented programs, and Blacks accounted for 16.2% of the total student population but only 8.4% of the students in gifted and talented programs (compare Figure 3.13 with Figure 3.5).

- By 1994, while the overall enrollment of Hispanics in such programs had increased since 1984 and had decreased for Whites during this time period, there was no corresponding change in the enrollment rates in the gifted and talented programs. While the enrollment rate for Whites decreased by 5.5 percentage points to 65.7% between 1984 and 1994, their enrollment rate in the gifted and talented programs remained relatively constant at 80.2%. By contrast, the Hispanic population grew by 3.6 percentage points to 12.7%, yet only 6.4% were enrolled in the gifted and talented programs. Similarly, while the Black student population increased slightly (15.2% to 16.9%) between 1984 and 1994, they remained under-represented in gifted and talented programs, experiencing only a minor increase, from 8.4% in 1984 to 8.5% in 1994 (compare Figure 3.13 with Figure 3.5).

Figure 3.13

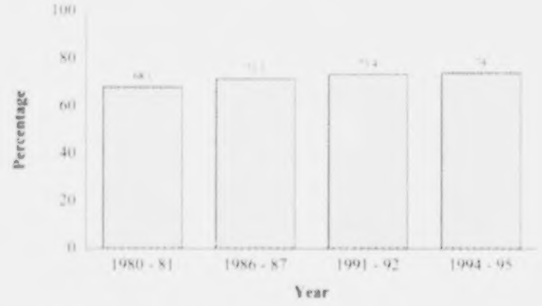
Gifted and Talented Enrollment Rates, 1984 - 1994



Source: Elementary and Secondary School Civil Rights Compliance Report, Office of Civil Rights, U.S. Department of Education. 1984 - 1994

Figure 3.14

Latino Students in Predominantly Minority Schools 1980 - 1994



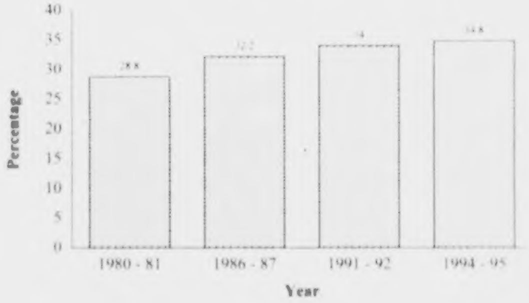
Source: Gary Orfield, *et al. Deepening Segregation in American Public Schools*, Harvard Project on School Desegregation, April 1997

D. ENROLLMENT IN SEGREGATED SCHOOLS

Between 1954, when *Brown v. Board of Education* was decided, and the early 1980s, there was slow but significant progress toward desegregating the nation's public schools. However, recent reports from the Harvard University Project on School Desegregation provide "clear signs that [the] progress is coming undone and that the nation is headed backwards toward greater segregation."[7] The move toward resegregation in the 1990s is, in part, the result of the Reagan and Bush Administrations' active opposition to school desegregation policies. At the same time, various judicial appointments transformed the federal courts such that they were less receptive to legal arguments supporting desegregation. Consequently, court decisions in the 1990s are permitting a return to segregated neighborhood schools. Whatever the cause, the Harvard Project demonstrates that there is a national increase in segregation, to the point that "racial and ethnic segregation of African American and Latino students has produced a deepening isolation from middle-class students and from successful schools."[9]

Figure 3.15

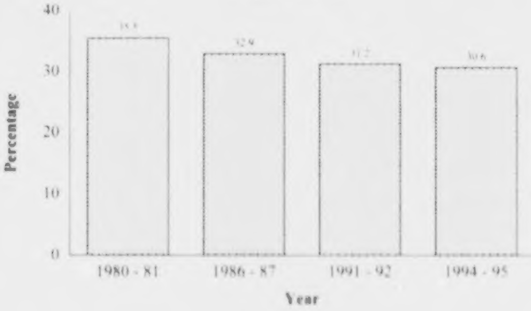
Latino Students in 90 - 100% Minority Schools
1980 - 1994



Source: Gary Orfield, *et al. Deepening Segregation in American Public Schools*, Harvard Project on School Desegregation, April 1997

Figure 3.16

White Students in Schools Attended by Typical Latino Students
1980 - 1994



Source: Gary Orfield, *et al. Deepening Segregation in American Public Schools*, Harvard Project on School Desegregation, April 1997

The various measures of segregation used by the Harvard Project demonstrate that over time Latinos have become more segregated; these include:

- The percentage of African American and Latino students in schools with less than half White enrollment
- The number of students experiencing intense isolation in schools having less than one-tenth White students
- The percentage of White students in a school attended by the typical African American or Latino student

Based on the three measures of segregation, Harvard Project Director Gary Orfield concludes that while the segregation of Blacks has increased, "Latino segregation has become substantially more severe than African American segregation."[10]

Figure 3.14 shows that between 1980 and 1995, Latino enrollment in predominantly minority schools increased from 68.1% to 74.0%. Figure 3.15 shows that in schools with less than one-tenth Whites (the measure of intense isolation), the percentage of Latinos increased from 28.8% in 1980 to 34.8% in 1995. Finally, Figure 3.16 illustrates the decline in the percentage of White students in schools attended by Latino students. In 1980, the proportion of White students in schools attended by Latino students was 35.5%. By 1994, the proportion decreased 4.9 percentage points to 30.6%.

An analysis of the segregation data by state indicates that New York leads the states in the segregation of Latinos, as it did in 1980 (see Figure 3.17). In the measure of percentage of Latinos attending majority White schools, 13.8% of Latinos attended such schools in New York, 17.3% in California, and 19.6% in Texas. In schools of extreme isolation (90-100% minority), New York was again the leader, with 57.3% of Latinos attending such schools. New Jersey followed with 43.4% and Texas with 43.0% of Latinos enrolled in schools of intense isolation. In addition, 19.2% of Whites in New York were in schools attended by Latino students, compared to 24.8% of Whites in California, and 25.0% of Whites in Texas.

An important finding of the Harvard Project is that:

> . . . [t]he relationship between segregation by race and segregation by poverty in the public schools across the nation is exceptionally strong. The correlation

FIGURE 3.17

STATE RANKINGS IN THE SEGREGATION OF LATINO STUDENTS

1994-95

% of Latinos in Majority White Schools		**% of Latinos in 90-100% Minority Schools**		**% Whites in Schools of Latino Students**	
New York	13.8	New York	57.3	New York	19.2
California	17.3	New Jersey	43.4	California	24.8
Texas	19.6	Texas	43.0	Texas	25.0
New Mexico	21.6	California	38.7	New Jersey	29.3
Rhode Island	24.8	Illinois	34.9	Illinois	30.9
Illinois	26.5	Connecticut	32.4	New Mexico	31.0
New Jersey	27.3	Florida	27.6	Florida	34.5
Connecticut	31.9	Pennsylvania	25.8	Connecticut	35.0
Florida	33.2	New Mexico	20.0	Rhode Island	38.0
Arizona	34.0	Arizona	18.9	Arizona	38.2
Pennsylvania	38.3	Indiana	17.0	Pennsylvania	40.9
Massachusetts	39.4	Florida	14.3	Massachusetts	42.8

Source: Gary Orfield, et al, *Deepening Segregation in American Public Schools*, Harvard Project on School Desegregation, Cambridge, MA (1997)

FIGURE 3.18

HISPANIC STUDENT SUSPENSIONS FOR SELECTED STATES, 1990 & 1994 (NUMBER AND PERCENT OF ALL SUSPENSIONS)

State	1990 Reported Number	1990 Percent of All State Suspensions	1994** Projected Number	1994** Percent of All State Suspensions
*National	161,344	12.0	404,483	13.1
Arizona	3,660	26.0	16,027	35.4
California	71,339	37.0	149,542	39.9
Colorado	5,067	26.0	12,672	24.0
Florida	11,898	9.0	21,421	11.7
Illinois	5,237	12.0	16,196	11.5
Massachusetts	2,212	15.0	9,268	20.1
New Jersey	3,997	14.0	12,989	14.0
New Mexico	4,639	57.0	16,561	56.6
New York ***	2,640	9.0	17,769	14.7
Texas	31,461	42.0	66,548	40.8

Source: State By State Analysis of Elementary and Secondary School Civil Rights Compliance Report, 1990 & 1994, Office of Civil Rights, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1990 & 1994)

* National total of Hispanic suspensions and percentage of all suspensions.

** 1990 data are reported data, 1994 data are projected.

*** 1990 data appear suspect.

> between the percent of [B]lack and Latino enrollments and the percent of students receiving free lunch is an extremely high .72. *This means that when we talk about racially segregated schools, they are very likely to be segregated by poverty as well.*[11] (Emphasis added)

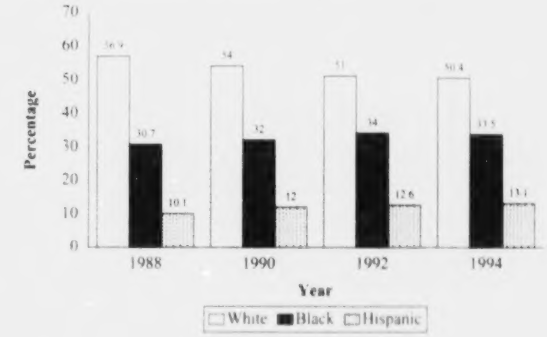
These findings have grave implications for the educational outcomes of Latino students. Given the evidence that high-poverty schools tend to have low rates of educational achievement, and that Latino students are more likely to attend schools segregated by race and poverty, then there is strong evidence that Latino students have difficult hurdles to overcome in the quest for achieving quality education. This is not to say that children in these circumstances cannot obtain educational excellence. To the contrary, one can find examples of high academic achievement in the midst of segregation and poverty; nevertheless there is a strong relationship between segregation, poverty, and low academic achievement. Moreover, any education agenda addressing the needs of Latino students must also address the twin concerns of segregation and poverty.

E. SUSPENSION RATES

Student suspension has traditionally been looked at as an important indicator in identifying students facing serious problems, and it is considered a risk factor for dropping out of school. Students suspended from school do not have the opportunity to participate in regular day-to-day classroom activities and, consequently, fall behind in

Figure 3.19

Suspensions by Race/Ethnicity, 1988 - 1994



Source: Elementary and Secondary School Civil Rights Compliance Report, U.S. Department of Education, 1988 - 1994.

schoolwork. Faced with, among other things, the pressures of catching up, many of these students leave school for fear of failure. Other students are children with special needs who either have not been identified as such or are not being served adequately. Student suspensions for all groups have increased dramatically since 1988. As the Hispanic student population has grown, so has their share of overall suspensions.

- Hispanic student suspensions have grown nationally from 10.1% of all suspensions in 1988 to 13.14% of all suspensions in 1994 (see Figure 3.19).
- While the number of suspensions for Whites has increased, their share of all suspensions has decreased since 1988, from 56.9% to 50.4% in 1994; Black student suspensions have increased in both sheer numbers and percentage of all suspensions, from 30.7% in 1988 to 33.5% in 1994 (see Figure 3.19).
- This growth in suspensions for Hispanics represents a 103% increase in the number of suspensions from 1988 to 1994, as compared with 69% for Blacks and 37% for Whites (see Figure 3.20). In states where they are highly concentrated, Hispanic students have experienced especially high rates of suspension from school (see Figure 3.18).

FIGURE 3.20

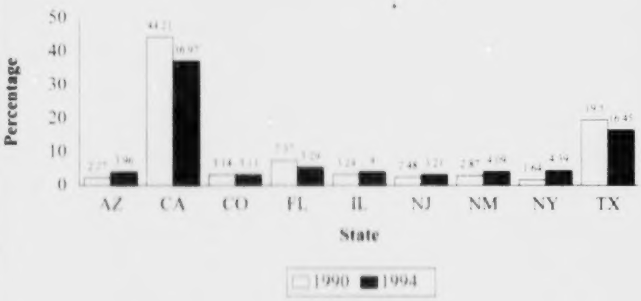
NATIONAL PERCENTAGE OF ALL SUSPENSIONS: 1988-1994

	Projected Totals for Hispanics	Hispanic percent of total	White percent of total	Black percent of total
1988	198,740	10.0	56.9	30.7
1990	227,803	12.0	54.0	32.0
1992	295,967	12.6	51.0	33.7
1994	404,483	13.1	50.7	33.5

Source: Elementary and Secondary School Civil Rights Compliance Report, 1988 - 1994. Office of Civil Rights, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1998 - 1994)

Figure 3.21

Proportion of Hispanic Suspensions by Selected States
1990 & 1994



Source: Elementary and Secondary School Civil Rights Compliance Report, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C., 1988 - 1994.

More Hispanic students are being suspended in more states. As reported by the schools and school districts to the Office of Civil Rights, all of the selected states below with substantial Hispanic populations (see Figure 3.18) show an alarming increase in the number of Hispanic student suspensions from 1990 to 1994.

- In all of the nine states with the largest Hispanic populations, the number of Hispanic suspensions doubled between 1990 and 1994. Moreover, in Arizona, Illinois, New Jersey, and New Mexico, Hispanic suspensions tripled from 1990 to 1994 (see Figure 3.18).
- While the state proportion of national Hispanic student suspensions decreased overall in the nine states with the largest number of Hispanics, from 86.7% in 1990 to 80.7% in 1994, more states reported increases in Hispanic student suspensions (see Figure 3.21).
- Twelve states other than those listed in Figure 3.18 reported more than 2,000 Hispanic student suspensions. These states include Connecticut, Kansas, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Utah, Virginia, Washington, and Wisconsin.

F. BILINGUAL EDUCATION ENROLLMENT

As the number of Limited-English-Proficient (LEP) students — most of whom are Hispanic — continues to rise, so will the issues surrounding their educational needs. Children with little or no previous exposure to the English language who enter the public school system are often unable to participate meaningfully in classroom activities and gain from instruction in English. Research shows that it generally takes from five to seven years for the average child to develop the full range of language skills (speaking, understanding, reading, writing, and thinking) necessary for academic success in an all-English instructional program. Toward this end, bilingual education is primarily designed to enable students to achieve full competence in English and to meet academic grade promotion and graduation requirements.

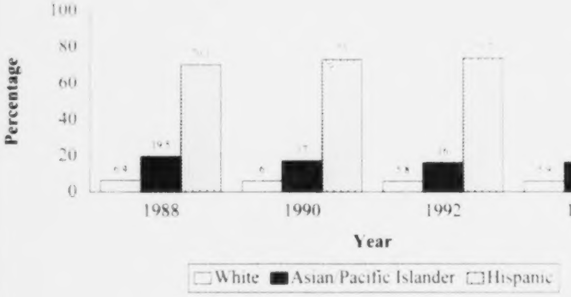
Federal and state laws mandate that public education accommodate the needs of LEP students. Bilingual education is not a curriculum or method of instruction, but rather a program of education which uses both English and a child's native language as a medium of instruction to facilitate English language acquisition and academic progress in content areas such as social studies, math, and science. All federally-funded bilingual education programs are designed to ensure that

LEP students master English and meet academic grade promotion and graduation requirements. Intensive, structured English-as-a-second-language (ESL) instruction is provided in all federally-funded bilingual education programs.

Beyond these similarities, the three primary types of federally-funded bilingual education programs differ in terms of both educational approach and objectives. "Transitional Bilingual Education" programs utilize a child's native language as a vehicle for facilitating students' transition into an all-English instructional program. "Developmental Bilingual Education" programs, often two-way programs to serve both non-English and English-language-background students, are designed to help students achieve full bilingualism in English and a second language. "Special Alternative Instructional" programs, primarily designed for schools where native language instruction is impractical because of the presence of students from many different non-English-language backgrounds, use specialized ESL instruction and supplementary services to assist LEP students. While many more bilingual education programs are funded by state and local education agencies than by the federal government, virtually all programs resemble one of the three program types authorized under federal law.

Figure 3.22

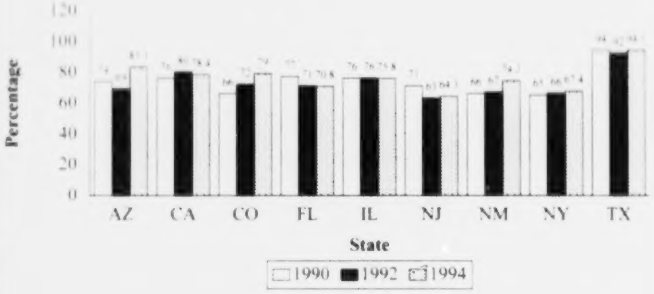
Enrollment in Bilingual Education Programs By Race/Ethnicity, 1988 - 1994



Source: Elementary and Secondary School Civil Rights Compliance Report, U.S. Department of Education, 1988 - 1994

Figure 3.23

Hispanic Students Enrolled in Bilingual Education Programs by Selected States, 1990 & 1994



Source: Elementary and Secondary School Civil Rights Compliance Report, U.S. Department of Education, 1990 - 1994

- As of 1994, Hispanics constituted 74.5% of all students enrolled in bilingual education programs compared to Asian/Pacific Islanders, who make up 16.3%, and Whites, who account for 5.9% (see Figure 3.22).
- Student enrollment in bilingual education programs experienced a dramatic increase from 1,470,787 students in 1988 to 2,256,844 in 1994. Hispanics accounted for a major part of that increase.
- Between 1988 and 1994 (see Figure 3.22):
  - Hispanics experienced a 63% increase in the percentage of students enrolled in

Figure 3.24

LEP STUDENTS WITHOUT LEP SERVICES BY RACE/ETHNICITY: 1988 - 1994

	Hispanic	White	Asian/Pacific Islander
1988			
Number	85,203	6,925	15,599
Percent	7.6	6.8	5.1
1990			
Number	91,609	11,396	18,346
Percent	6.2	8.7	5.3
1992			
Number	90,992	12,478	31,100
Percent	5.6	9.5	8.6
1994			
Number	247,971	18,850	40,667
Percent	12.9	12.3	10.0

Source: Office for Civil Rights, *Elementary and Secondary School Civil Rights Compliance Reports 1988 - 1994*, Office of Civil Rights, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, DC (1988 - 1994)

LEP programs. In 1988, 1,030,788 or 70.1% of the students enrolled in LEP programs were Hispanic, compared to 1,680,212 or 74.5% of the students enrolled in LEP programs by 1994.

- ❖ Whites experienced a 41% increase in the number of students enrolled in LEP programs. In 1988, 94,180 or 6.4% of the students enrolled in LEP programs were White. By 1994, 133,211 or 5.9% of the students in bilingual education were White.
- ❖ Asians experienced a 28% increase in the number of students enrolled in bilingual education programs. In 1988, 286,391 or 19.5% of the students in bilingual education programs were Asian, compared to 367,592 or 16.3% in 1994.

- ■ The vast majority of students in need of bilingual education are Hispanic (see figure 3.25). In 1994, 1,928,183 Hispanic students were in need of LEP services, while 1,680,212 were actually enrolled. Nationally, this means that 247,971 Hispanic LEP students were without needed services in 1994, relative to 18,850 of comparable White students and 40,667 of comparable Asian/Pacific Islander students (see Figure 3.24).
- ■ Since 1988, the number of Hispanic students without LEP services has increased dramatically from 85,203 or 7.6% in 1988 to 247,971 or 12.9% in 1994. Increases have also been experienced by Whites, from 6,925 or 6.8% in 1988 to 18,850 or 12.4% in 1994, and by Asian/Pacific Islanders, from 15,599 or 5.1% in 1988 to 40,667 or 10% in 1994 (see Figure 3.24).
- ■ Increases were reported in Hispanic student enrollment in bilingual education programs between 1990 and 1994 for the nine states with the largest Hispanic populations (see Figure 3.23):
  - ❖ Significant percentage increases were documented in Arizona (148%), California (37%), Colorado (138%), Florida (72%), Illinois (44%), New Jersey (66 %), New Mexico (270%), New York (98%), and Texas (45%) (see Figure 3.23).

LEP, ESL AND BILINGUAL EDUCATION: CLARIFICATION OF TERMS

Children who are **Limited-English-Proficient (LEP)** have a native language other than English.* Federal legislation (Title VII, Part A of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965) provided authorizing language which allows elementary and secondary school teachers to use a continuum of instructional methods to help LEP children acquire English skills and keep pace in other subject areas. (The Improving America's Schools Act of 1994 amended the ESEA, but did not substantially change the intent of the original legislation.) For the most part, LEP students are taught using two methods: English as a Second Language (ESL) and bilingual education.

ESL is a method in which LEP students are taught English language skills almost exclusively in English. It may be based upon a curriculum that incorporates little or no use of the native language, and is taught only in specific school periods, after which students are placed under regular instruction for the rest of the school day. It often operates as a "pullout" program in which students are removed from the classroom or "pulled out" and taught English apart from their classmates. Some of these students may also be placed in bilingual education programs the rest of the day.

Bilingual education is the use of two languages, one of which is English, as a means of instruction. It is an educational tool primarily used with LEP children to provide them both English language instruction and access to other content areas of the curriculum in their first language. The native language of the child is used in bilingual programs to the extent necessary to teach basic skills and ensure that children do not fall behind their peers in other subjects while they learn English.

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* Limited-English-Proficient (LEP) is the term used by the federal government; most states and local school districts identify such students as those "who have insufficient English to succeed in English-only classrooms." Another term used is "language minority students," referring to those who live in households where a language other than English is spoken. However, these children can actually be monolingual English.

❖ In Florida and New Jersey, the number of Hispanics enrolled in bilingual education programs has increased in absolute terms, perhaps because of an increase in the number of immigrant students, while the corresponding percentages have decreased. For example, while the number of Hispanics enrolled in bilingual education programs in Florida increased from 49,299 in 1990 to 84,818 in 1994, the percentage decreased from 77.0% to 70.8%. Similarly, in New Jersey, the number of Hispanics in bilingual education classes increased from 16,732 to 27,891 between

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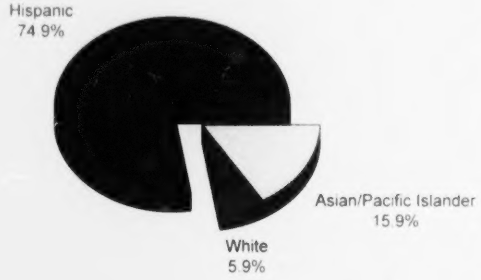
1990 and 1994, while the percentages decreased from 71% to 64.3%.

Figure 3.25

Percentage of Students Needing Bilingual Education Programs by Race/Ethnicity 1994



Source: Elementary and Secondary School Civil Rights Compliance Report, U.S. Department of Education, 1994

G. ACHIEVEMENT TEST SCORES

1. INTRODUCTION

Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has conducted periodic testing of the nation's students in areas including reading, mathematics, science, writing, and computers. (The NAEP testing results are based on sampling techniques, as opposed to other proposed tests' basing results on the aggregation of individual results.) This long-term assessment provides "information about students' achievement over time."[12] The data presented below illustrate the NAEP results by race and ethnicity.

2. READING

The national average in the NAEP reading scores for all age groups remained relatively unchanged between 1988 and 1994. Overall, Whites continued to perform above the national average, while Blacks and Hispanics consistently performed well below the national average.

In addition, the gap between Whites' and Hispanics' reading scores is growing, albeit at a slow pace:

- In 1988, for the population of nine-year-olds, the difference in scores between Whites (218) and Latinos (194) in the NAEP reading scores was 24 points; the gap between Whites and Blacks (189) was 29 points. By 1994, the gap between test scores for Whites and Hispanics (186) grew to 32 points; and increased to 33 points for Whites and Blacks (185) (see Figure 3.26).
- In 1988, the difference in test scores between 13-year-old Whites (261) and Hispanics (240) was 21 points; and between Whites and Blacks (243) was 18 points. By 1994, the gap in test scores between Whites (265) and Hispanics (235) increased by 30 points; for Whites and Blacks (234) the gap was 31 points (see Figure 3.27).
- In 1988, the difference in test scores between 17-year-old Whites (295) and Hispanics (271) was 24 points; and between Whites and Blacks (274) was 21 points. In 1994 the gap between Whites (296) and Hispanics (263) was 33 points; and the gap between Whites and Blacks (266) was 30 points (see Figure 3.28).

The NAEP study also assesses levels of reading performance. NAEP has identified five levels of reading performance:

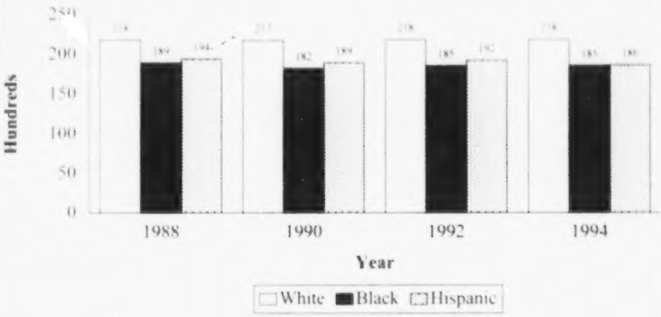
- **Level 350:** Ability to Learn from Specialized Reading Materials
- **Level 300:** Ability to Understand Complicated Information
- **Level 250:** Ability to Interrelate Ideas and Make Generalizations
- **Level 200:** Partially-Developed Skills and Understanding
- **Level 150:** Ability to Perform Simple Discrete Reading

Figure 3.29 shows the percentage of nine-, 13-, and 17-year-olds who have performed at or above each of the reading performance levels listed above. Generally, the test results demonstrated an increase for all age categories and race/ethnic groups. However, Whites were more likely to score at or above the Reading Performance Levels than either Blacks or Hispanics. Some highlights of the results are:

- Among nine-year-olds who demonstrated mastery at Level 200, NAEP reported an increase between 1971 and 1994 for Whites and Blacks, and between 1975 and 1994 for Latinos.* However, Whites and Hispanics experienced modest gains compared to Blacks. Between 1971 and 1974 the percentage of Whites who scored at or above Level 200 increased from 65% to 70%; and from 22% to 38% for Blacks. The smallest gain (2.0 percentage points) was for Latinos between 1975 and 1994, from 35% to 37%.

Figure 3.26

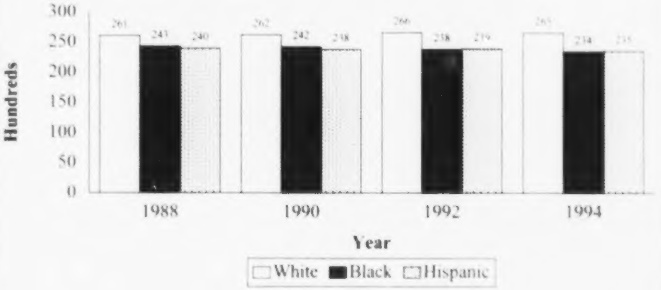
Reading Scores for Nine-Year-Olds by Race/Ethnicity, 1988 - 1994



Source: *NAEP Trends in Academic Progress*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, November 1996.

Figure 3.27

Reading Scores for 13-Year-Olds by Race/Ethnicity, 1988 - 1994



Source: *NAEP Trends in Academic Progress*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, November 1996.

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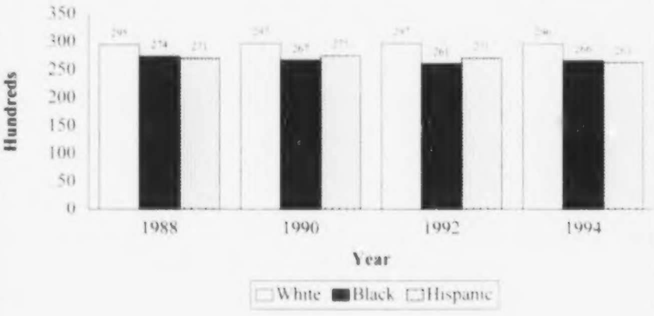
* Initial results for Whites and Blacks are from 1971, while the first assessment of Latinos was done in 1975.

Figure 3.28

Reading Scores for 17-Year-Olds by Race/Ethnicity, 1988 - 1994



Source: *NAEP Trends in Academic Progress*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, November 1996.

- Among nine-year-olds who demonstrated mastery at level 250, all groups again experienced an increase. There was an increase between 1971 and 1994 for Whites and Blacks, and between 1975 and 1994 for Latinos. However, despite the noted increase in 1994, Whites were still over three times more likely than Hispanics to score at that level. In 1994, while 20% of White nine-year-olds scored at or above the 250 Level, only 4% of Blacks and 6% of Hispanics demonstrated similar mastery.

- Among 13-year-olds at the 250 Level, there was an increase in the percentage of White and Black students who scored at or above that level between 1971 and 1994. Latinos also experienced an increase between 1975 and 1994. But again, despite the gains for Hispanics in 1994, Whites were twice as likely as Latinos to score at or above Level 250; in 1994, 68% of Whites scored at the 250 Level, compared to 36% of Blacks and 34% of Hispanics.

- Whites and Blacks experienced an increase in the percentage of 13-year-old students who scored at or above the 300 Level between 1971 and 1994. Latinos also experienced an increase between 1975 and 1994. In 1994, Whites were four times more likely than Hispanics to score at the 300 Level; while 17% of Whites tested at that level, only 4% of Blacks and 4% of Hispanics scored at the 300 Level.

- Between 1971 and 1994, 17-year-old Whites made only modest gains at the 250 Level compared to their Black and Hispanic counterparts. In 1971, 84% of Whites and 40% of Blacks, and in 1975, 53% of Hispanics, performed at or above the Level 250. By 1994, 86% of Whites, 66% of Blacks, and 63% of Hispanics scored at Level 250.

- In 1994, among 17-year-olds, 48% of Whites, 22% of Blacks, and 20% of Hispanics scored at the 300 Level. The scores increased from 1971, when 43% of Whites and 8% of Blacks, and from 1975, when 13% of Hispanics, scored at Level 300.

3. WRITING

NAEP also conducted trend writing assessments in 1994 that involved nationally representative samples of fourth, eighth, and 11th graders. Similar assessments have been done since 1984. Between 1984 to 1994, NAEP found no real changes in writing scale scores across grades for all students as a whole. During this time, fourth-graders' scale scores increased by one point, eighth-

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Figure 3.29

TRENDS IN PERCENTAGES OF STUDENTS AT OR ABOVE READING PERFORMANCE LEVELS BY RACE/ETHNICITY, 1971/1975 AND 1994

		1971		1975	1994		
LEVEL	**AGE**	**WHITE**	**BLACK**	**HISPANIC**	**WHITE**	**BLACK**	**HISPANIC**
LEVEL 350	9	0	0	0	0	0	0
	13	0	0	0	1	0	0
	17	8	0	1	9	2	2
LEVEL 300	9	1	0	0	1	0	0
	13	11	1	2	17	4	4
	17	43	8	13	48	22	20
LEVEL 250	9	18	2	3	20	4	6
	13	64	21	32	68	36	34
	17	84	40	53	86	66	63
LEVEL 200	9	65	22	35	70	38	37
	13	96	74	81	95	81	82
	17	98	82	89	98	93	91
LEVEL 150	9	94	70	81	96	79	80
	13	100	99	100	100	99	99
	17	100	98	99	100	100	99

Source: *NAEP 1994 Trends in Academic Progress*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

graders' scores decreased by one point, and 11th-graders' scores decreased by five points. Hispanic students experienced slight gains in average writing scale scores during the 1984-1994 period. Although significant narrowing was seen at several of the writing performance levels shown in Figure 3.33, the gap between Whites and Hispanics in writing proficiency remained relatively constant overall during this period.

- At grade four, the gap between the test scores of White, Black, and Hispanic students remained constant between 1988 and 1994. In 1994 the gap between Whites (214) and Blacks (173) was 41 points; the gap between Whites and Latinos (189) was 25 points. In 1998 the gap between Whites and Blacks was 42 points and between Whites and Hispanics was 25 points (see Figure 3.30).
- At grade eight, there was a slight two-point increase between 1988 and 1994 in the average writing scale score for Hispanics, from 250 to 252. Despite this increase, in 1994 White eighth-graders (272) still performed at higher levels than Black students (245) by 27 points (the highest in 10 years) and than Hispanic students (252) by 20 points. In 1988, Whites

scored an average of 269 points, compared to 246 for Blacks (a 23-point difference) and 250 points for Hispanics (a 19-point difference) (See Figure 3.31).

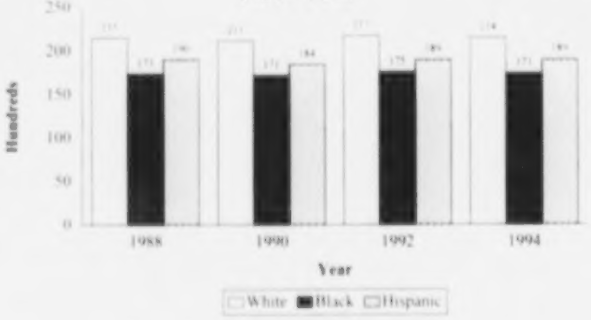
- At grade 11, the score for all groups decreased between 1988 and 1994; however, the gaps between groups remained approximately the same. The scores for Whites, Blacks, and Hispanics decreased from 296 to 291; from 275 to 267; and from 274 to 271, respectively. In 1994, the gap between Whites (291) and Blacks (267) was 24 points; the gap between Whites and Hispanics (271) was 20 points. In 1988, the gap between Whites and Blacks was 21 points and between Whites and Hispanics 22 points (see Figure 3.32).

The trend writing assessment ranges from 0 to 500 with the following evaluations:

- **Level 350** - Effective, coherent writing
- **Level 300** - Complete, sufficient writing
- **Level 250** - Beginning focused, clear writing
- **Level 200** - Incomplete, vague writing
- **Level 150** - Brief, disjointed, unclear writing, difficult to understand

Figure 3.30

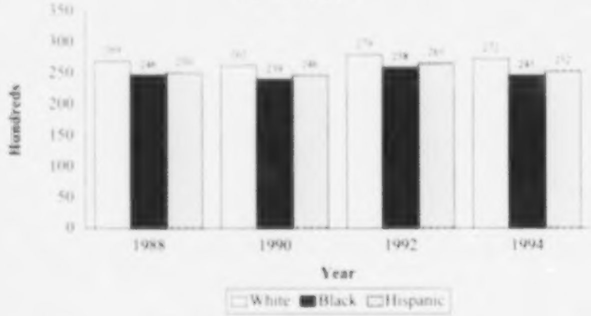
Writing Scores for Grade 4 by Race/Ethnicity
1988 - 1994



Source: *NAEP Trends in Academic Progress*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, November 1996.

Figure 3.31

Writing Scores for Grade 8 by Race/Ethnicity
1988 - 1994



Source: *NAEP Trends in Academic Progress*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, November 1996.

Figure 3.33 shows percentages of students performing at or above the five assessment levels.

Some progress is noted at Levels 250 and 300 for grades eight and eleven:

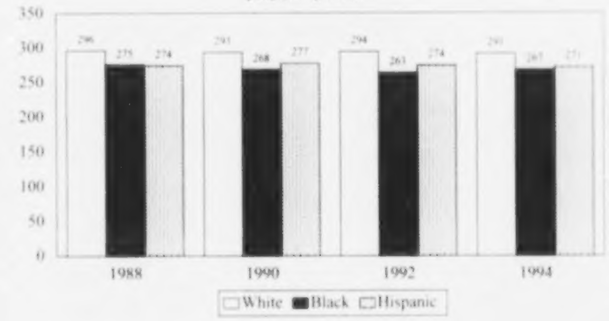
- At grade eight, the percentage of students testing at Level 250 decreased for Whites and Blacks while it increased for Hispanics between 1984 and 1994. While the percentage of White students testing at Level 250 decreased from 79% to 75% and the percentage for Black students decreased from 48% to 43%, the percentage of Hispanics testing at this level increased five percentage points, from 47% to 52% (see Figure 3.33).
- The percentage of all eighth-grade students testing at or above Level 300 increased between 1984 and 1994. The percentage of Whites testing at this level increased from 16% to 21%, compared to increases for Blacks from 3% to 5% and for Hispanics from 4% to 9% (see Figure 3.33). The gaps between White and Black students increased during this same period from 13 to 16 points at the 300 Level; 31 to 32 points at the 250 Level; and three to eight points at the 200 Level. Between Whites and Hispanics, gaps remained relatively constant, except at the 250 Level, where the difference between groups narrowed from 32 points in 1984 to 23 points in 1994 (see Figure 3.33).
- The percentages of White and Black students in the 11th grade testing at or above Level 250 decreased, but increased for Hispanic students in the 10-year period from 1984 to 1994. In 1984, 79% of Whites, 48% of Blacks, and 47% of Hispanics tested at Level 250. By 1994, the rates for Whites and Blacks decreased to 75% and 43%, respectively. However, the percentage of Hispanics testing at this level increased by five percentage points to 52% (see Figure 3.33).
- At grade 11, the percentage of White students testing at Level 300 decreased from 46% in 1984 to 39% in 1994. The percentage of Hispanics testing at this assessment level increased from 8% in 1984 to 20% in 1994. The percentage for Blacks remained constant at 16% during the same period (see Figure 3.33).

4. MATHEMATICS

Since the establishment of standards in school mathematics in 1989, attention has been given to this discipline and its role in school curricula. This attention has resulted in the reworking of school

Figure 3.32

Writing Scores for Grade 11 by Race/Ethnicity
1988 - 1994



Source: *NAEP Trends in Academic Progress*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

curricula and teaching programs, an increased focus on faculty development in mathematics, and advances in assessing student progress in the subject. The testing conducted by NAEP, which involved sampling students from across the country, provides a national picture of mathematics performance by Black, White, and Hispanic students at the ages of nine, 13, and 17. These long-term trend assessments employed a set of questions that focused heavily on students' performance and associated achievement levels related to the use of manipulatives and performance on constructed-response questions.[15] They also contained extended sets of background questions describing the context of students' mathematics learning experiences, both in and out of school.

The results from the NAEP long-term trend assessments in mathematics provide a wide range of information about how students' performance has changed over time:

- The average mathematics scale score of nine-year-olds, beginning with the 1986 assessment, shows a pattern of enhanced performance

Figure 3.33

TRENDS IN PERCENTAGES OF STUDENTS AT OR ABOVE FIVE WRITING PERFORMANCE LEVELS BY RACE/ETHNICITY, 1984 AND - 1994

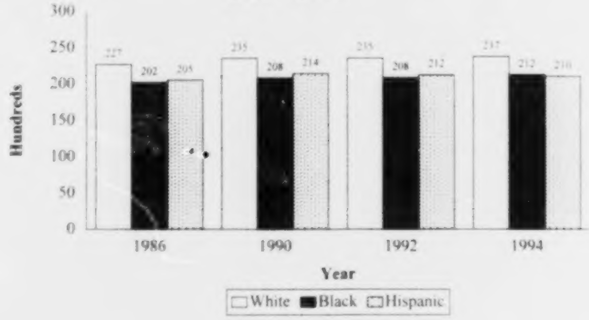
		1984			1994		
LEVEL	**GRADE**	**WHITE**	**BLACK**	**HISPANIC**	**WHITE**	**BLACK**	**HISPANIC**
LEVEL 350	4	0	0	0	0	0	0
	8	0	0	0	1	0	0
	11	3	0	0	3	0	1
LEVEL 300	4	1	0	1	2	0	0
	8	16	3	4	21	5	9
	11	46	16	8	39	16	20
LEVEL 250	4	13	3	5	15	2	4
	8	79	48	47	75	43	52
	11	95	76	62	89	71	74
LEVEL 200	4	62	29	37	67	22	38
	8	99	95	93	98	90	92
	11	100	99	97	100	98	97
LEVEL 150	4	96	81	84	96	75	86
	8	100	100	100	100	100	100
	11	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: *NAEP 1994 Trends in Academic Progress*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

However, Whites continued to outperform their Black and Hispanic counterparts, and while the gap in scores between Whites and Blacks remained constant, the gap in scores between Whites and Hispanics grew. In 1994 the score for Whites was 237, compared to 212 for Blacks and 210 for Hispanics. The 1994 results show an increase for all groups since 1986, with Whites scoring 227 points, compared to 202 points for Blacks and 205 for Hispanics (see Figure 3.34).

Figure 3.34

Mathematics Scores for Nine Year-Olds by Race/Ethnicity
1986 - 1994

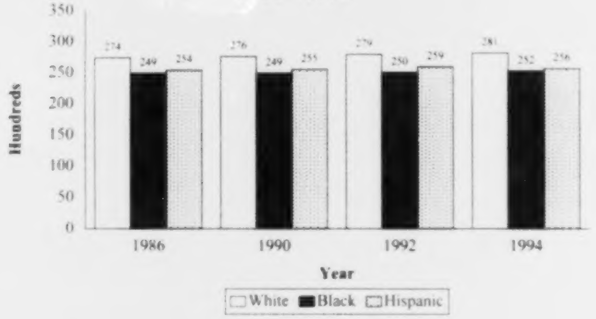


Source: *NAEP Trends in Academic Progress*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, November 1996

- The mathematics scores for 13-year-olds show a modest increase for Whites, compared to just discernible increases for both Blacks and Hispanics. Additionally, the gap in scores also grew slowly between 1986 and 1994. In 1994, the gap of average scores between White (281) and Black (252) 13-year-olds was 29 points, compared to a gap of 25 points between Whites and Hispanics (256) of the same age. In 1986, the gap between Whites (274) and Blacks (249) was 25 points; and between Whites and Hispanics (254), the gap was 20 points (see Figure 3.35).

Figure 3.35

Mathematics Scores for 13-Year-Olds by Race/Ethnicity
1986 - 1994

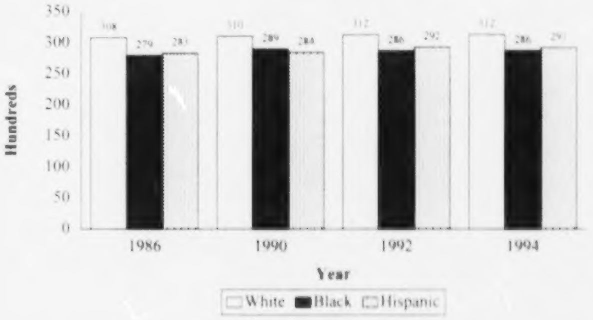


Source: *NAEP Trends in Academic Progress*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, November 1996

- The mathematics scale scores for 17-year-olds is notable not only for the improvements in scores of all groups, but also for a slow decrease in the gap between Whites and their Black and Hispanic counterparts. While White students have consistently out-performed their Black and Hispanic classmates, the average score gap in 1994 between Whites (312) and Blacks (286) was 26 points, compared to the gap in 1986, which was 29 points.

Figure 3.36

Mathematics Scores for 17-Year-Olds by Race/Ethnicity
1986 - 1994



Source: *NAEP Trends in Academic Progress*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, November 1996.

The difference in test scores in 1994 between Whites and Hispanics (291) was 21 points, compared to a gap of 25 points in 1986, when Whites scored 308 points while Hispanics scored 283 (see Figure 3.36).

Figure 3.37 details the performance of groups and subgroups of students for the years 1978 and 1994 at the following five performance levels:

- **Level 350** - Multi-Step Problem Solving and Algebra
- **Level 300** - Moderately Complex Procedures and Reasoning
- **Level 250** - Basic Operations and Beginning Problem Solving
- **Level 200** - Beginning Skills and Understandings
- **Level 150** - Simple Arithmetic Facts

Overall, a higher percentage of Whites than Hispanics and Blacks tested at or above each of the five assessment levels. Despite the great strides Hispanics have made between 1978 and 1994, White students have tested at the higher NAEP assessment levels over this 16-year period:

- Among nine-year-olds testing at Level 250, Whites outperformed both Blacks and Hispanics in 1978 and 1994. Additionally, the percentage of students performing at this level increased for all groups, but the difference in progress between Whites and Hispanics is extreme. In 1978, 23% of Whites tested at this level, compared to 4% of Blacks and 9% of Hispanics. Over 16 years, the percentage of Whites testing at Level 250 increased by 12 percentage points to 35%; by contrast, Hispanics experienced a gain of only one percentage point to 10% during the same period (see Figure 3.37).
- At Level 200, a greater percentage of Hispanic nine-year-olds performed at or above this level in 1994 than in 1978, but the gap between the percentage of Whites and Hispanics performing at this level remained constant. In 1978, there was a 22-percentage-point difference between Whites (76%) and Hispanics (54%) reaching Level 200. By 1994, the percentage gap increased to 23 percentage points; 87% of White nine-year-olds scored at Level 200, while 64% of Hispanics scored at this level (see Figure 3.37).
- Among 13-year-olds, 86% of White students tested at Level 250 in 1994, compared to 51% of Blacks and 59% of Hispanics. This proportion increased for all groups since 1978, with 73% of White 13-year-olds scoring at Level

Figure 3.37

TRENDS IN PERCENTAGES OF STUDENTS
AT OR ABOVE FIVE MATHEMATICS PERFORMANCE LEVELS
BY RACE/ETHNICITY, 1978 AND 1994

		1978			1994		
LEVEL	**AGE**	**WHITE**	**BLACK**	**HISPANIC**	**WHITE**	**BLACK**	**HISPANIC**
LEVEL 350	9	0	0	0	0	0	0
	13	1	0	0	1	0	0
	17	9	1	1	9	0	1
LEVEL 300	9	1	0	0	2	0	0
	13	21	2	4	26	6	6
	17	58	17	23	67	30	38
LEVEL 250	9	23	4	9	35	11	10
	13	73	29	36	86	51	59
	17	96	71	78	98	91	92
LEVEL 200	9	76	42	54	87	66	64
	13	98	80	86	99	96	97
	17	100	99	99	100	100	100
LEVEL 150	9	98	88	93	100	97	97
	13	100	99	100	100	100	100
	17	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: *NAEP 1994 Trends in Academic Progress*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

250, compared to 29% of Blacks and 36% of Hispanics (see Figure 3.37).

- In 1978, over one-half (58%) of White 17-year-olds tested at or above Level 300, yet less than two-fifths of comparable Blacks and Hispanics combined (17% and 23%, respectively) reached this level that year. By 1994, slightly more than two-thirds (67%) of Whites tested at the 300 assessment level; by comparison, a similar proportion of *both* Blacks (30%) and Hispanics (38%) reached this level (see Figure 3.37).

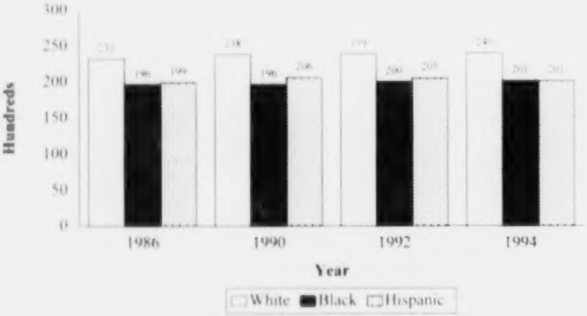
5. Science

To help policymakers and educators assess the outcomes of their quest for excellence in science learning, the NAEP long-term-trend science assessment sampled students from across the country at ages nine, 13, and 17. These trend science assessments contain both a content and a cognitive dimension. The content dimension assesses students' ability to conduct inquiries, solve problems, and know science. NAEP also assesses students' understanding of the nature of science within the context of both content area knowledge and cognition.

- In 1994, as in reading and mathematics, White nine-year-olds out-performed their Black and Hispanic counterparts in science. Both the gap between White (240) and Hispanic (201) students and that between White and Black (201) students were 39 points. Although Hispanic nine-year-olds experienced a seven-point improvement, from 199 to 206, between 1986 and 1990, their average score had dropped five points since 1990 to a score of 201 in 1994 (see Figure 3.38).

Figure 3.38

Science Scores for 9-Year-Olds by Race/Ethnicity
1986 - 1994



Source: *NAEP Trends in Academic Progress*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, November 1996.

- In 1994, among 13-year-olds, the average score gap between Whites (267) and Blacks (224) was 43 points; between Whites and Hispanics (232) the gap was 35 points. This represents an increase in the gap for both Black and Hispanic students over 1986 levels, when the gap between Whites (259) and Blacks (222) was 37 points and between Whites and Hispanics (226) 33 points. Since 1986, Hispanics scored highest in 1992, with a score of 238 points; however, that score was still 29 points lower than that of White students (267) (see Figure 3.39).

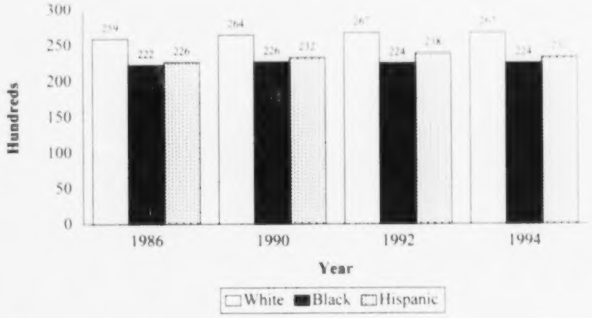
- Among 17-year-olds, White students continued to perform better than either Blacks or Hispanics. Unfortunately, the gap between White students and Black and Hispanic students in science was much greater than the performance gap in mathematics. In 1994, the average score gaps between Whites (306) and Blacks (257) was 49 points; the gap between Whites and Hispanics (261) was 45 points. Once again, the gap in scores increased between 1986 and 1994, when Whites scored 298 points, compared to 253 for Blacks (a difference of 45 points) and 259 for Hispanics (a difference of 39 points) (see Figure 3.40).

Student performance in the science trend assessments was calculated using analysis techniques based on item response theory (IRT). NAEP produced a scale with five different levels of science performance:

- **Level 350** - Integrates Specialized Scientific Information
- **Level 300** - Analyzes Scientific Procedures and Data
- **Level 250** - Applies General Scientific Information
- **Level 200** - Understands Simple Scientific Principles

Figure 3.39

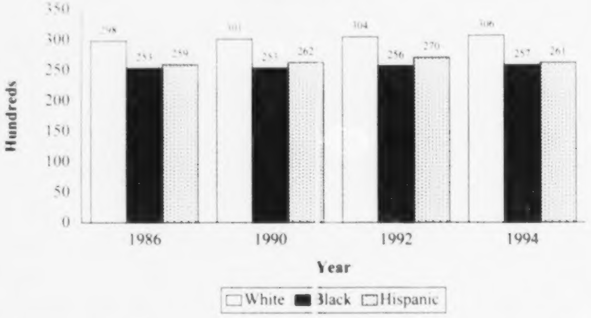
Science Scores for 13-Year-Olds by Race/Ethnicity
1986 - 1994



Source: *NAEP Trends in Academic Progress*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, November 1996.

Figure 3.40

Science Scores for 17-Year-Olds by Race/Ethnicity
1986 - 1994



Source: *NAEP Trends in Academic Progress*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, November 1996.

- **Level 150** - Knows Everyday Science Facts

Some highlights of student performance at the various assessment levels include the following:

- Among nine-year-olds, 41% of Whites tested at or above Level 250 in 1994, compared to 11% of Blacks and 11% of Hispanics. This represents a 10-percentage-point increase for Whites since 1977, compared to a seven-point increase for Blacks and a two-point increase for Hispanics; in 1977, 31% of White nine year-olds tested at or above Level 250, compared to 4% of Blacks and 9% of Hispanics (see Figure 3.41).
- In 1994, 71% of White, 22% of Black, and 32% of Hispanic 13-year-olds tested at or above Level 250. All groups experienced an increase since 1977, with 57% of Whites, 15% of Blacks, and 18% of Hispanics reaching Level 250 (see Figure 3.41).
- Among 17-year-olds, Whites experienced a 10-point increase in the percentage of students testing at Level 300, compared to a seven-point increase for Blacks and a three-point increase for Hispanics. In 1994, 58% of Whites, 15% of Blacks, and 22% of Hispanics attained this assessment level. In comparison, 48% of Whites, 8% of Blacks, and 19% of Hispanics tested at this level (see Figure 3.41) in 1977.

6. COMPUTERS

As the U.S. approaches the next millennium, computer usage and skills will become essential to everyday social and professional life. Exposure to computers in school will unquestionably help young people gain the computer literacy they need to function effectively in a technological society. According to the Office of Educational Research and Improvement, many students have computer access at home. However, the amount of access is very much related to the student's socioeconomic status. In 1995, NCES provided data for the period between 1984 to 1993 on the percentage of students who used a computer at school or at home by selected characteristics. Figure 3.42 through Figure 3.45 show the percentage of students who used a computer at school, or used a computer at home.

According to NCES:

- In grades one through six, in 1984, 16.9% of Hispanic first- to sixth-graders used a computer at school compared to 36.4% of Whites and 15.5% of Blacks. By 1993, the percentage increased for all students; however, Whites were still more likely than Blacks or Hispanics to use a computer at school; 74.9% of Whites, 56.6% of Blacks, and 57.8% of Hispanics used a computer at school (see Figure 3.42).

FIGURE 3.41

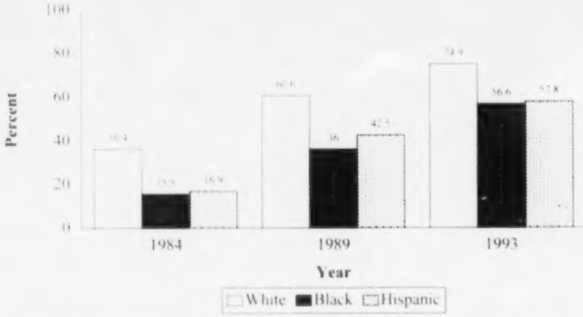
TRENDS IN PERCENTAGES OF STUDENTS AT OR ABOVE FIVE SCIENCE PERFORMANCE LEVELS BY RACE/ETHNICITY, 1977 AND 1994

		1977			1994		
LEVEL	**AGE**	**WHITE**	**BLACK**	**HISPANIC**	**WHITE**	**BLACK**	**HISPANIC**
LEVEL 350	9	0	0	0	0	0	0
	13	1	0	0	0	0	0
	17	10	0	2	13	1	2
LEVEL 300	9	4	0	0	5	0	1
	13	13	1	2	15	2	2
	17	48	8	19	58	15	22
LEVEL 250	9	31	4	9	41	11	11
	13	57	15	18	71	22	32
	17	88	41	62	92	58	59
LEVEL 200	9	77	27	42	86	52	50
	13	92	57	62	98	74	81
	17	99	84	93	99	91	90
LEVEL 150	9	98	72	85	99	91	91
	13	100	93	94	100	99	99
	17	100	99	100	100	100	99

Source: *NAEP 1994 Trends in Academic Progress*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

Figure 3.42

Computer Use at School, Grades 1-6 by Race/Ethnicity
1984 - 1993

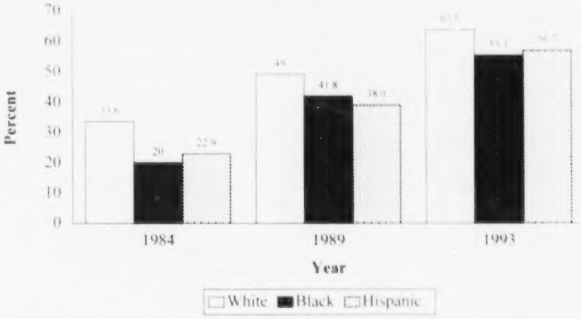


Source: *The Condition of Education 1995*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, June 1995.

- In 1984, in grades one through six, Whites (at 14.8%) were over four times more likely than Hispanics (3.6%) and over two times more likely than Blacks (5.3%) to use a computer at home. By 1993, computer usage at home increased for all groups, but there remained a large gap between groups; almost one in three (30.5%) Whites used a computer at home, compared to about one in 12 (8.7%) Blacks and one in seven (7.1%) Hispanics (see Figure 3.44).

Figure 3.43

Computer Use at School, Grades 7-12 by Race/Ethnicity
1984 - 1993



Source: *The Condition of Education 1995*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, June 1995.

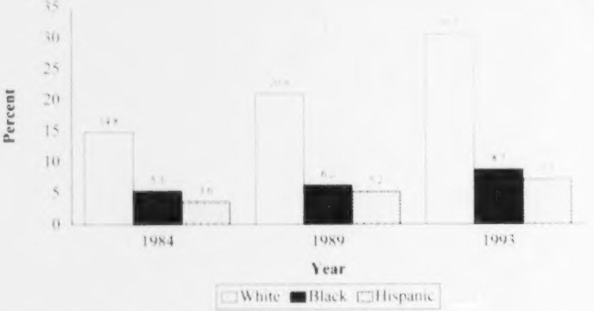
- By 1993, the gap in computer use at school closed between the different groups in grades seven through 12, and was smaller than in grades one through six; 63.5% of Whites, 55.1% of Blacks, and 56.7% of Latinos used a computer at school in 1993, compared to 33.6% of Whites, 20.0% of Blacks, and 22.9% of Hispanics in 1984 (see Figure 3.43).

- While the gap in the percentage of students using computers grew closer to parity between 1984 and 1993, there was a stark difference in the percentage of students in grades seven through 12 who used a computer at home during that time. In 1984, 17.1% of Whites used a computer at home, compared to 5.4% of Blacks and just 3.9% of Hispanics. By contrast, in 1993 Whites were over three and one-half times more likely than either Blacks or Hispanics to use a computer at home; 37% of Whites, 11.1% of Blacks, and 10.2% of Hispanics in grades seven through twelve used a computer at home (see Figure 3.45).

- Overall, Hispanic students were the least likely group to use a personal computer. In 1992, 20.9% of Hispanic high school seniors used a personal computer at least once per week, compared to 23.9% of White students and 23.6% of Black students.

Figure 3.44

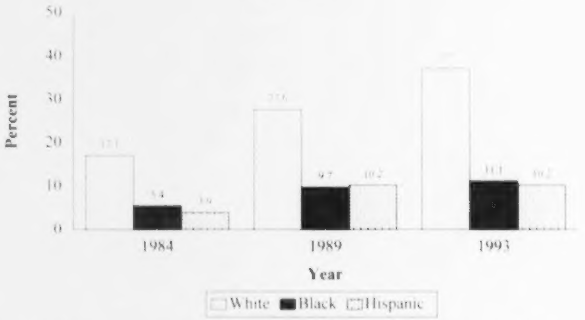
Computer Use at Home, Grades 1-6 by Race/Ethnicity, 1984 - 1993



Source: *The Condition of Education 1995*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, June 1995.

Figure 3.45

Computer Use at Home, Grades 7-12 by Race/Ethnicity 1984 - 1993



Source: *The Condition of Education 1995*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, June 1995.

II. CURRICULUM

1. CARNEGIE UNITS EARNED BY HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES

Carnegie units are a standard measure of high school credits earned, defined in terms of class time, and approximately equivalent to one class meeting five times a week for one class period throughout the school year. Credits earned are a measure of the quantity of courses taken, and not the quality of the learning that took place. As of 1992, Hispanic graduates continue to earn fewer credits in history, science, and mathematics than other groups. Hispanics have, however, earned more credits in computer science, foreign languages, and English than other groups (see Figure 3.46).

- While the gap in Carnegie units in mathematics earned between Hispanics and other groups has narrowed significantly since 1982, insufficient progress has been made by Hispanics in regard to science. In 1992, Hispanic students earned an average of 2.60 Carnegie units in science, as compared to 2.93 for Whites and 2.74 for Blacks.
- Hispanic high school graduates continue to earn more credits in English than in any other subject. In 1992, Hispanic students earned an average of 4.26 Carnegie units in English, compared to 4.20 for Blacks and 4.17 for Whites.
- In 1992, Hispanics also earned more Carnegie units in computer science and foreign language classes than other groups. Hispanic students earned an average of 0.41 Carnegie units in computer science and 1.76 Carnegie units in

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foreign languages, compared to 0.34 and 1.70 in these respective subjects for Whites, and 0.38 and 1.28 for Blacks.

2. Math and Science Course Enrollment

A greater percentage of Hispanic high school graduates took upper-level math and science courses in 1994 than in 1987. With the exception of subjects such as algebra, trigonometry, astronomy, and engineering, Hispanic students took more upper-level mathematics and science courses in 1994 for subjects such as algebra II, geometry, pre-calculus, calculus, biology, honors biology, chemistry, honors chemistry, physics, honors physics, and geology than in 1987 (See Figure 3.47).

- In a number of subjects such as algebra I, algebra II, geometry, pre-calculus, biology, and chemistry, the gaps between Hispanics and Whites have closed significantly. In 1987, 51.9% of Whites were enrolled in algebra II, compared to 32.4% of Blacks and 30.2% of Hispanics. By 1994, while Whites experienced an increase in their enrollment in such subjects of 9.7 percentage points to 61.6%, Hispanic enrollment increased by 20.8 percentage points to 51.0%, and Black enrollment increased by 11.3 percentage points to 43.7%.

Figure 3.46

NUMBER OF CREDITS EARNED BY HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES IN SELECTED MAJOR SUBJECT FIELDS BY RACE/ETHNICITY, SELECTED YEARS

	1982			1987		
	White	**Black**	**Hispanic**	**White**	**Black**	**Hispanic**
English	3.84	4.06	3.88	4.01	4.09	3.97
History/Social Studies	3.19	3.09	3.02	3.29	3.32	3.20
Mathematics	2.59	2.53	2.26	3.03	2.96	2.87
Computer Science	0.09	0.08	0.04	0.33	0.23	0.21
Science	2.24	2.04	1.79	2.58	2.32	2.21
Foreign Languages	1.02	0.70	0.76	1.35	1.09	1.50

	1990			1992		
	White	**Black**	**Hispanic**	**White**	**Black**	**Hispanic**
English	4.08	4.25	4.05	4.17	4.20	4.26
History/Social Studies	3.48	3.49	3.44	3.61	3.59	3.38
Mathematics	3.18	3.23	3.21	3.38	3.37	3.36
Computer Science	0.35	0.39	0.32	0.34	0.38	0.41
Science	2.80	2.67	2.49	2.93	2.74	2.60
Foreign Languages	1.59	1.23	1.97	1.70	1.28	1.76

Source: *Digest of Education Statistics 1996*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

- Despite increases in upper-level course selection for Hispanics, Hispanic students overall continue to be less likely than White students to take upper-level mathematics and science courses. For example, in 1987, 2.8% of Whites, 1.5% of Blacks, and 1.6% of Hispanics were taking Advanced Placement (AP) biology. By 1994 the rates increased for all groups to 4.6% of Whites, 2.7% of Blacks, and 3.3% of Hispanics.

FIGURE 3.47

PERCENTAGE OF HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES TAKING SELECTED MATHEMATICS AND SCIENCE COURSES, BY RACE AND ETHNICITY, 1987 & 1994

MATHEMATICS COURSES (Credits)	**1987**			**1994**			
	White	**Black**	**Hispanic**	**Total**	**White**	**Black**	**Hispanic**
Any Mathematics	99.3	99.5	99.4	99.6	99.6	99.3	99.2
Algebra I (1)	77.7	70.7	73.1	66.4	67.5	65.0	70.7
Algebra II (.5)	51.9	32.4	30.2	58.6	61.6	43.7	51.0
Geometry (1)	65.1	44.0	40.2	70.4	72.7	58.1	69.4
Trigonometry (.5)	20.9	10.9	9.9	17.2	18.6	13.6	9.8
Analysis or Pre-Calculus (.5)	13.5	5.1	7.4	17.3	18.2	9.8	13.9
Calculus (1)	5.9	2.3	3.6	9.2	9.6	3.8	6.0

SCIENCE COURSES (Credits)	**1987**			**1994**			
	White	**Black**	**Hispanic**	**Total**	**White**	**Black**	**Hispanic**
Any Science (1)	98.7	98.7	98.5	99.5	99.7	99.5	99.3
Biology (1)	89.2	86.2	85.4	93.5	94.4	91.3	94.0
AP/Honors Biology (1)	2.8	1.5	1.6	4.6	4.6	2.7	3.3
Chemistry (1)	47.7	29.8	29.4	56.0	58.5	43.8	46.5
AP/Honors Chemistry (1)	3.5	1.2	2.3	3.9	4.3	2.1	2.5
Physics (1)	20.9	10.1	9.8	24.4	26.1	14.7	16.0
AP/Honors Physics (1)	1.7	0.4	0.8	2.4	2.5	1.4	1.8
Engineering (1)	0.0	0.4	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.1
Astronomy (.5)	0.9	0.3	0.8	1.7	2.0	0.6	0.4
Geology (.5)	14.4	18.8	11.8	23.0	23.8	23.3	15.3
Biology/Chemistry (2)	46.0	28.6	28.2	53.8	56.4	42.2	45.1
Bio/Chem/Physics (3)	17.9	8.8	8.2	21.3	22.7	13.0	13.4

Source: *Digest of Education Statistics 1996*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

(**Note:** No disaggregated statistics for subgroups are available for 1982-1992)

FIGURE 3.48

PERCENT OF SENIORS REPORTING ENROLLMENT IN GENERAL, ACADEMIC, AND VOCATIONAL HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMS, 1972, 1980 AND 1992

	General			Academic			Vocational		
	1972	**1980**	**1992**	**1972**	**1980**	**1992**	**1972**	**1980**	**1992**
TOTAL	31.8	36.9	40.0	45.7	38.7	47.7	22.4	24.4	12.3
SEX									
Male	33.1	38.0	40.9	48.3	39.0	46.6	18.6	23.0	12.5
Female	30.6	35.9	39.1	43.2	38.4	48.8	26.2	25.7	12.1
RACE/ETHNICITY									
Black	34.2	35.2	40.2	32.7	33.0	42.8	33.1	31.7	17.0
White	30.6	37.1	38.7	48.6	39.8	49.9	20.8	23.1	11.4
Hispanic	42.4	41.6	50.6	27.4	26.9	35.4	30.1	31.5	14.1

Source: *NCES - NELS:88 Trends Among High School Seniors, 1972-1992*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1995)

- Again, while the enrollment numbers of all groups increased for physics, chemistry, trigonometry, and algebra II, Black and Hispanic students in 1994 continued to trail their White counterparts by 10 or more percentage points in their participation in such classes. In 1994, 56.4% of Whites were enrolled in biology/chemistry compared to 42.2% of Blacks and 45.1% of Hispanics.

3. HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAM

The type of program used to instruct high school students varies from school to school. The variation in programs reflects different schooling system approaches to meeting two basic, yet partially competing, objectives: providing a common education to all students and preparing students for very different postsecondary educational and work experiences.[14] The most popular form of school organization used to meet these objectives, established early this century, has been the comprehensive high school. This type of program differentiates students into three main types of curriculum: college preparatory or academic, vocational preparatory, and a hybrid of the two — the general studies program.

The main alternative to the comprehensive form is the specialized high school, which may offer either a vocational or an academic program of study. Historically, most specialized public schools have been vocational high schools. In recent years, specialized academic "magnet schools" within urban districts have become widespread. Private and parochial high schools also usually specialize in a college preparatory program.[15]

- In 1992, a greater proportion of Hispanic students (50.6%) was enrolled in general programs of study than either Whites (38.7%) or Blacks (40.2%) (see Figure 3.48).

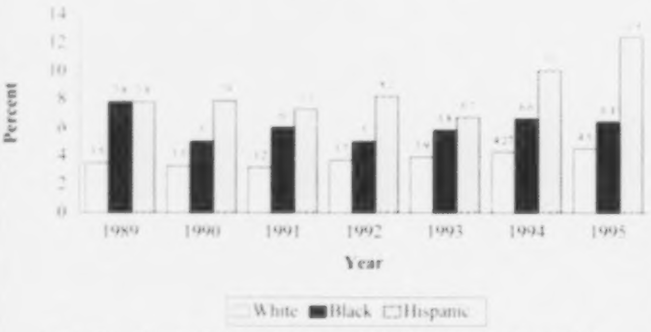
- A smaller proportion of Latino students (35.4%) was enrolled in academic (college preparatory) programs of study than their White (49.9%) or Black (42.8%) counterparts.

- Overall, there has been a general decrease in the percentage of students enrolled in vocational programs of study for all groups. However, Hispanic students are enrolled in vocational programs of study at a higher level (14.1%) than White students (11.4%), but at a lower level than Black students (17.0%).

- Between 1972 and 1992, the proportion of Hispanics in general and academic programs of study has increased. In 1992, one-half (50.6%) of Hispanic students were enrolled in general programs of study, compared to more than two in five (42.4%) in 1972. Similarly, more than one-third (35.4%) of Hispanic students were enrolled in academic programs of study, compared to more than one-fourth (27.4%) in 1972. In terms of vocational programs, the proportion of Hispanic enrollment decreased from 30.1% in 1972 to 14.1% in 1992.

Figure 3.49

Event Dropout Rates, 1989 - 1995



Source: *The Condition of Education 1996*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C., June 1996; *The Condition of Education 1997*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, June 1997.

I. EDUCATION ATTAINMENT

1. EVENT HIGH SCHOOL DROPOUT RATE

The event dropout rate measures the number of students in grades 10-12, aged 15-24, who were enrolled in school the previous October, but who were not enrolled and had not graduated the following October.

- The event dropout rate for 1995 indicates that Hispanics are more than twice as likely as Whites to drop out of school during the school year. In 1995, the event dropout rate for Hispanics was 12.4%, compared to 4.5% for Whites and 6.4% for Blacks (see Figure 3.49).

- There has been an upward trend in the Latino dropout rate between 1989 and 1995. During

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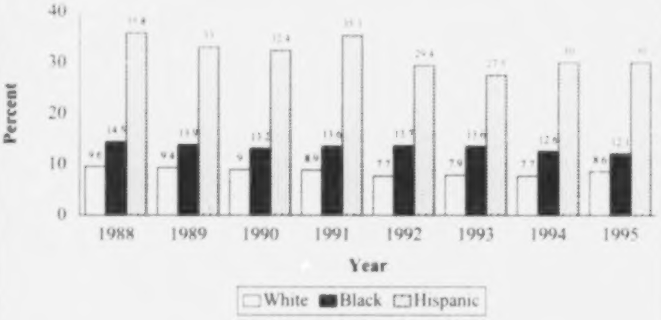
this time, the Hispanic event dropout rate increased by 4.6 percentage points, although it did decline to a low of 6.7% in 1993. During the same period, the rate for Whites reached a low of 3.2% in 1991, but increased to 4.5% by 1995. The data for Blacks demonstrate that the rate decreased from 7.8% in 1989 to 6.4% in 1995. However, between 1992 and 1994, the event dropout rate for Blacks increased, with a slight leveling off by 1995 (see Figure 3.49).

Figure 3.50


Status Dropout Rates, 1988 - 1995

Source: Dropout Rates in the United States: *1995*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, September 1996.

2. STATUS DROPOUT RATES

The status dropout rate includes a count of all young adults who are not in school and have not graduated regardless of when they last attended school. In general, the status dropout rate will be higher than the event dropout rate because the figure is cumulative.

Recent reports on high school dropout rates appropriately note that the proportion of African Americans dropping out of school is higher than that of Whites. A promising note, however, is that the gap between Whites and Blacks continues to close. This is not the case for Hispanics. Overall, there has been insufficient attention given to the increasing gap between White and Hispanic dropout rates (see Figure 3.50).

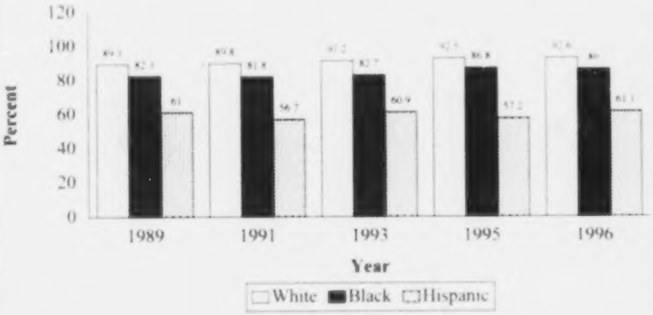
- In 1994, the Hispanic status dropout rate (30.0%) was over four times higher than that of Whites (7.7%) and over two times higher than that of Blacks (12.6%).
- Between 1988 and 1994, the Latino status dropout rate experienced an overall decrease of 5.8 percentage points, although within that period there was a fluctuation of the rate. As shown in Figure 3.50, in 1992, the Hispanic dropout rate began to decline, and experienced a low of 27.5% in 1993, but by 1994 it began to increase again.
- Between 1988 and 1994, the status dropout rate for Whites experienced a slow but definite decrease; at the beginning of this period the White rate was 9.6%; and by 1994 the rate had declined to 7.7%.

3. HIGH SCHOOL COMPLETION RATES

High school completion rates combine the number of individuals who have received a regular high school diploma or a General Education Development certificate. The completion rates have generally been higher for Whites. The gap in completion rates between Whites and Blacks is closing, but is increasing between Whites and Hispanics (see Figure 3.51).

Figure 3.51

High School Completion Rates, 1989 - 1996



Sources: *The Condition of Education 1996*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, June 1996; *Educational Attainment in the United States*, Current Population Reports, Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce, March 1995

- In 1996, 92.6% of 25 to 29-year-old Whites had completed high school, compared with 86.0% and 61.1% of their Black and Latino counterparts, respectively.
- Between 1989 and 1995, there was an increase from 89.3% to 92.5% in the White high school completion rate, compared to a decrease for Latinos from 61.0% to 57.2%. The proportion of African Americans who had completed high school increased from 82.3% to 86.8% during this time. However, between 1995 and 1996, the rates for both Whites and Blacks remained relatively unchanged, whereas the proportion of Latinos who had completed high school increased 3.9 percentage points, from 57.2% to 61.1%.

J. EDUCATIONAL EXPECTATIONS

Overall, educational aspirations increased for all groups between 1982 and 1992. The greatest increases in high school seniors aspiring to attain college and post graduate-degrees were reported among Blacks and Hispanics. Of all groups, Hispanics had the largest increase (30 points) between 1982 and 1992 in high school seniors planning to attend college (see Figure 3.52). Hispanics also account for the largest percentage of high school seniors aspiring to attend two-year colleges or vocational schools (see Figure 3.53). While educational aspirations have increased, real barriers such as college costs, adequate college preparation, and access to information threaten to dampen students' desire to attend college.

- In 1992, three-quarters (75.4 %) of Hispanic high school seniors planned to attend college right after high school. This reflects a significant increase in the proportion since 1982 (45.6%). The gap in postsecondary educational aspiration between Whites (60.2%), Blacks (57.5%), and Hispanics (45.6%) reported in 1982 had narrowed significantly by 1992 (76.6%, 75.2%, and 75.4%, respectively).
- A slightly larger proportion of Hispanic high school seniors were deciding to attend college a year or more after graduation in 1992 (15.4%) than in 1982 (13.3%). This delay in postsecondary school attendance is higher than

that for Whites (15.2%) or Blacks (14.4%).

- The percentage of Hispanics who will not or do not know if they will attend college has significantly declined since 1982. In 1992, 9.4% of Hispanic high school seniors did not know whether they would attend college, as opposed to 41.1% of Hispanic high school seniors in 1982. The 1992 figure is higher than that for White high school seniors (8.4%) but lower than that for Black high school seniors (10.6%).
- In 1992, a greater proportion of Hispanic high school seniors were aspiring to attain college and post-graduate degrees than in 1982. Almost one-third (31.6%) of Hispanic students were aspiring to a college degree in 1992, compared to 13.3% in 1982. In regard to post-graduate degrees, 30.8% of Hispanic high school seniors aspired to this level of educational attainment in 1992, compared to 11.5% in 1982.
- In part, as a result of this increased interest in four-year college and post-graduate degrees, the percent of Hispanic high school seniors desiring two-year associate or vocational school degrees declined. In 1992, 31.3% of Hispanic high school seniors aspired to two years of college or vocational school, compared to 39.8% in 1982.
- In 1992, Hispanic high school seniors were still aspiring to college (31.6%) and post-graduate (30.8%) degrees at lower levels than Whites (37.3% college and 32.3% graduate) and Blacks (34.0% college and 37.9% graduate).

FIGURE 3.52

PERCENT OF HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS WHO PLAN TO GO TO COLLEGE AFTER GRADUATION: 1982 AND 1992

Student and School Characteristics	**Planned timing of postsecondary attendance**					
	Right after high school		**A year or more after graduation**		**No or don't know**	
	1982	**1992**	**1982**	**1992**	**1982**	**1992**
All seniors	58.3	76.6	11.0	14.8	30.6	8.6
Male	53.4	73.0	10.6	16.0	35.9	11.2
Female	63.0	80.1	11.4	13.8	25.8	6.1
Race/ethnicity						
White	60.2	76.6	10.4	15.2	29.5	8.4
Black	57.5	75.2	13.9	14.4	28.7	10.6
Hispanic	45.6	75.4	13.3	15.4	41.1	9.4

Source: Thomas Snyder and Linda Shafer, *Youth Indicators, 1996*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

- The percent of Hispanic high school seniors aspiring only to a high school degree (6.3%) has declined significantly since 1982 (35.4%), but was still slightly higher than that for Whites (5.3%) or Blacks (4.7%) in 1992.
- More than three in 10 (31.3%) Hispanics — the highest proportion of high school seniors — aspired to an associate or vocational degree, compared to one-quarter (25.1%) of Whites and almost one-quarter (23.5%) of Blacks.

1. The NELS:88 Cohort

In 1988, the U.S. Department of Education asked students participating in a longitudinal study of eighth graders about their educational expectations. The presumption was that early goals, images of ability level, and opportunities might affect achievement throughout life. The National Education Longitudinal Study of 1988 (NELS:88) contains reports of the highest level of education students expected to attain, collected both while cohort members were in the eighth grade and four years later.

Overall, there was a decline between 1988 and 1992 in the percentage of students who expected to earn a bachelor's degree. According to the U.S. Department of Education, this decline may be attributed to the knowledge acquired by students during the four-year period in which they assessed factors such as their interests and abilities; availability and cost of postsecondary alternatives; life-style choices, such as marriage and em-

FIGURE 3.53

PERCENT OF HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS ASPIRING TO VARIOUS LEVELS OF EDUCATION: 1982 AND 1992

Student and School Characteristics	**High School diploma or less**		**Two years or less of college or vocational school**		**College graduate**		**Post-graduate degree**	
	1982	**1992**	**1982**	**1992**	**1982**	**1992**	**1982**	**1992**
All seniors	24.6	5.3	36.6	25.3	21.3	36.1	17.5	33.3
Male	28.2	6.7	34.0	26.0	20.5	36.2	17.3	31.1
Female	21.1	3.9	39.2	24.5	22.0	36.2	17.8	35.4
Race/Ethnicity								
White	22.7	5.3	35.6	25.1	23.4	37.3	18.3	32.3
Black	25.3	4.7	40.7	23.5	17.1	34.0	16.9	37.9
Hispanic	35.4	6.3	39.8	31.3	13.3	31.6	11.5	30.8

Source: Thomas Snyder and Linda Shafer, *Youth Indicators, 1996*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

ployment experience; and potential gains from a college or advanced degree. In 1992, a lower percentage of Hispanic 1988 eighth graders than Whites expected to earn a bachelor's degree or higher (see Figure 3.54). Overall, a greater proportion of Hispanics than any other group expected to obtain some college or vocational school education.

- In 1992, 4.2% of Hispanics in the NELS: 88 group said they expected to achieve less than a high school diploma, compared to 2.3% of this same group in 1988.
- A lower proportion of Hispanics from the NELS: 88 group expected to obtain a high school diploma in 1992 (9.4%) than had expected to do so in 1988 (13.1%).
- A slightly higher proportion of Hispanics from the NELS: 88 group expected to obtain a bachelor's degree or more in 1988 (54.8%) than did in 1992 (52.7%).
- In 1992, a greater proportion of Hispanics (33.8%) than Blacks (28.7%) or Whites (27.6%) expected to obtain some level of college or vocational school education. The data indicate

Figure 3.54

PERCENTAGE OF 1988 EIGHTH GRADERS INDICATING IN 1988 AND 1992 THE HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATION THEY EXPECT TO OBTAIN

	Year	High school diploma	Less than high school graduate	Some college or vocational school	Bachelor's degree or more
TOTAL	1988	1.5	10.3	22.4	65.8
	1992	2.3	8.1	28.1	61.4
SEX					
Male	1988	1.8	11.7	23.2	63.3
	1992	2.8	8.9	28.6	59.7
Female	1988	1.1	8.9	21.7	68.2
	1992	1.9	7.2	27.6	63.2
RACE/ETHNICITY					
Hispanic regardless of race	1988	2.3	13.1	29.8	54.8
	1992	4.2	9.4	33.8	52.7
Black not of Hispanic origin	1988	2.3	7.5	25.9	64.3
	1992	1.8	10.5	28.7	59.0
White not of Hispanic origin	1988	1.1	10.5	20.7	67.6
	1992	2.2	7.4	27.6	62.8

Source: *Descriptive Summary Report: With an Essay on Access and Choice in Postsecondary Education*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

that a slightly higher percentage of all groups had these expectations than in 1988 when 29.8% of Hispanics, 25.9% of Blacks, and 20.7% of Whites expected to obtain some college or vocational school education.

- A lower proportion of Hispanic students (52.7%) than Blacks (59.0%) and Whites (62.8%) in 1992 expected to obtain a bachelor's degree or more. The data reflect a decrease from 1988, when 54.8% of Hispanics, 64.3% of Blacks, and 67.6% of Whites expected to obtain a bachelor's degree or more.

K. EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

Extracurricular activities are an important part of a student's education. Whether these include academic clubs, student government, honorary societies, community service, part-time work, or spending time with family or friends, extracurricular activities often influence a child's life choices and educational decisions. Data show that Hispanic high school seniors continue to participate less than their White counterparts in a number of traditional extracurricular activities (see Figure 3.55).

1. SCHOOL-SPONSORED EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

During the 1972 to 1992 period, the overall proportion of seniors participating in a variety of extracurricular activities changed relatively little. There has been some decline in the percent of students participating in student government and an increase in participation in honorary societies. Academic clubs remain a popular activity, with about 25% of seniors participating in 1992.[16] During this period, Hispanic high school senior participation has generally increased for honorary societies and school literature activities, while decreasing for academic clubs and student government.

- Hispanic high school senior participation in academic clubs in 1992 (22.6%) had decreased slightly since 1972 (24.2%). This 1992 figure for Hispanics was higher than the percentage of Black high school seniors (20.6%), but lower than that for White high school seniors (25.8%).

- Black, White, and Hispanic high school seniors increased their participation in honorary societies since 1972, but Hispanics in 1992 (at 12.4%) still participated at lower levels than Whites (19.6%) and Blacks (14.0%) in such activities.

- Hispanic high school senior participation in student government declined from 16.0% in 1972 to 14.6% in 1992. In 1992, Hispanics participated less in student government than White (15.4%) or Black (16.7%) high school seniors, who had the highest participation rate.

- Participation in the school newspaper or yearbook remained constant for Hispanic high school seniors during the 1972-1992 period, 16.2% to 16.8%. This participation rate is lower than that for White high school seniors (19.7%), but higher than that for Black high school seniors (14.3%). Both Black and White high school seniors experienced a decline in participation in this activity from 1972 to 1992 (See Figure 3.55).

2. AFTER-SCHOOL ACTIVITIES

According to the U.S. Department of Education, "there appears to be a negative relationship between television watching and performance on achievement tests." This is also true for other variables; for example, high-socioeconomic-status students were less likely to watch five or more hours of television on school nights than low socioeconomic status students.[17] (see Figure 3.56.)

- Hispanic students are watching less television than they did a decade ago. Although in accordance with the general trend of watching less television, Hispanic high school seniors experienced the largest decline, 12.2 percentage points, in students who watched five hours or more of television on a school night from 1980 to 1992.
- In 1992, only 9.3% of Hispanic high school seniors watched five or more hours of television on a school night, compared to 21.5% in 1980. The percentage of White high school seniors watching five or more hours of television on a school night declined from 13.7% in 1980 to 6.4% in 1992, while the corresponding percentage of Black high school seniors declined from 29.0% to 21.3% during the same time period.
- Hispanic students (63.8%) were more likely than Black students (62.0%) but less likely than Whites (68.2%) to do things with their parents. Hispanic students (82.4%) were also more likely than Blacks (79.8%) but less likely than Whites (90.7%) to do things with friends.

FIGURE 3.55

PERCENT OF HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS WHO PARTICIPATE IN SELECTED SCHOOL-SPONSORED EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES: 1972, 1980 AND 1992

Student and School Characteristics	Academic clubs			Honorary societies			Student Government			Newspaper or yearbook		
	1972	1980	1992	1972	1980	1992	1972	1980	1992	1972	1980	1992
All Seniors	25.6	23.8	25.1	14.4	17.1	18.5	19.4	18.5	15.4	20.2	19.9	18.8
Male	20.3	19.0	22.8	10.7	13.8	14.4	18.1	15.8	13.1	14.7	15.4	14.0
Female	30.9	28.3	27.4	18.1	20.1	22.7	20.8	21.0	17.7	25.5	24.0	23.5
Race/Ethnicity												
White	25.0	22.9	25.8	15.1	17.8	19.6	19.2	17.7	15.4	20.4	20.1	19.7
Black	33.1	28.8	20.6	11.7	13.7	14.0	25.3	23.1	16.7	20.7	17.8	14.3
Hispanic	24.2	24.7	22.6	10.2	11.9	12.4	16.0	16.7	14.6	16.2	15.8	16.8

Source: Thomas Snyder and Linda Shafer, *Youth Indicators, 1996*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

Figure 3.56

PERCENT OF HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS ENGAGED IN VARIOUS AFTER-SCHOOL ACTIVITIES: 1980 AND 1992

Student and School characteristics	Driving around at least once		Five or more hours of television per week on a school night		1992			
					At least once per week			Read more than one hour per week in material not related to school work
	1980	1992	1980	1992	Use a personal computer	Do things with friends	Do things with parent	
All seniors	59.1	73.3	16.1	8.4	23.7	88.1	66.7	55.4
Male	63.6	74.3	14.7	8.5	28.1	88.2	61.2	53.1
Female	55.2	72.3	17.0	8.4	19.3	88.0	72.1	57.7
Race/ethnicity								
White	60.7	75.7	13.7	6.4	23.9	90.7	68.2	56.3
Black	48.9	67.8	29.0	21.3	23.6	79.8	62.0	51.0
Hispanic	58.6	66.2	21.5	9.3	20.9	82.4	63.8	53.5

Source: Thomas Snyder and Linda Shafer, *Youth Indicators, 1996*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

- Hispanic students (53.5%) were slightly less likely than White students (56.3%) to read more than one hour per week in material not related to school work, but slightly more likely than Black students (51.0%) to do so.

- In 1992, two-thirds of Hispanic and Black high school seniors (66.2% and 67.8%, respectively) were likely to be driving around at least once per week, compared to three-quarters (75.7 %) of White high school seniors. This is a significant change since 1980, when Hispanic high school seniors (58.6%) were more likely than Black high school seniors (48.9%) to be driving around at least once per week, and slightly less likely than White high school seniors (60.7%).

L. SUMMARY

The data above indicate that there has been some progress in the academic status of Latino students over the past decade. Latino students have made gains in reading, writing, and math assessments, are likely to be exposed to computer use in the middle- and high-school grades, and have increased their participation in academic high school programs. In particular, promise is seen in the educational aspirations and expectations of a notable proportion of Latino high school students. Nevertheless, disparities continue to exist on a number of educational measures. Compared to Whites and Blacks, data show that Hispanics are less likely to attend preschool, more likely to be retained in grade, less likely to be enrolled in gifted and talented programs, more likely to attend segregated schools, and more likely to drop out of high school.

Given the importance of education and its significance to adult economic opportunity and status, it is critical to highlight the slow and insufficient academic progress of Hispanics compared to other Americans. The standing of the U.S. in the new millennium and in the global economy is dependent upon the educational achievement and progress of all students. The education gaps between Hispanics and others will be closed — and such troubling trends reversed — only when the nation, and the Latino community itself, makes Hispanic educational improvement its top priority.

Immigration and Education

In the past decade, there has been a significant increase in the number of immigrant students enrolling in the nation's public schools. Despite this growth, research and data collection on such students are limited. Even basic information such as the exact number of immigrant students is difficult to ascertain, since data collection does not include immigrants as a specific demographic group but rather counts them within a larger category, such as "English-language ability" or specific socioeconomic status.

For example, according to the 1990 Census, 6.3 million school-age children, or approximately 14% of the student population, lived in homes where a language other than English is spoken. Of the students who reported speaking languages other than English at home, 900,000 (14%) reported speaking English not well or not at all; 1.5 million (24%) reported speaking English well, and 3.9 million (62%) reported speaking English very well. It is difficult to state how many of these children are themselves immigrants, are children of immigrant parents, or are native-born Americans.

Additional Census data include information on the number of foreign-born youth under age 18. These data show that immigrant youth are concentrated in just five states (see below).

Immigrant Youth in Five States

	Foreign-Born Youth Under 18 Years Old	As a % of All Foreign -Born Youth in the U.S.	As a % of All Youth in the State
California	852,514	41	11
New York	258,296	12	6
Texas	196,547	9	4
Florida	144,748	7	5
Illinois	87,122	4	3

Source: 1990 Census of Population and Housing, U.S. Census Bureau, Washington, D.C.

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The difficulty with Census data is that they include all children even if they are too young to be enrolled in school or are not enrolled in school for other reasons (e.g., have dropped out). However, the U.S. Department of Education does collect data on students who have been in the U.S. for three years or less. These data indicate that 78% of immigrant students attend school in just five states and that 45% of the students attend schools in California (see below):

Immigrant Students in Five States

	Immigrant Students in U.S. Three Years or Less
California	268,455
Florida	18,697
Illinois	30,965
New York	100,769
Texas	47,963
U.S. Total	**602,178**

Source: U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1991)

PERFORMANCE OF IMMIGRANT STUDENTS*

There are three general conclusions to be drawn from the limited research on immigrant students:

1. **Immigrant students face various adjustment problems.** Generally, immigrant students face the challenges of learning a new language, as well as adjusting to a new culture, which may conflict with the students' own cultures. Additionally, immigrant students must also deal with family disruptions, which may include being separated from parents and/or siblings.
2. **Immigrant students perform relatively well in school.** Studies show that immigrant students tend to perform well in school, especially if they received some schooling before they entered the U.S. Some important factors which influence educational outcomes include valuing high academic achievement and hard work, as well as having a close-knit family.
3. **The academic performance of immigrant students is not uniform across all ethnic groups.** The amount of education that an immigrant student received before coming to the U.S. and differences in the home environment may explain the differences in academic achievement that is identified across immigrant groups.

Additional research on immigrant children in the San Diego school district includes the results of a longitudinal study, which documents, in part, the educational performance of the children of immigrants. Some important findings included the following:

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* For further discussion of these issus, see "Immigrants and Their Educational Attainment: Some Facts and Findings," in *Digest*, ERIC Clearinghouse on Urban Education, Number 116, November 1996.

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- At every grade level, children in immigrant families outperform the district norms, although the gap narrows over time and grade level. For example, 44.0% of 9th graders who were immigrants maintained a GPA above 3.0, compared to 29.0% of all 9th graders; by the 12th grade, 50.0% of immigrant children had a GPA above 3.0, compared to 46.0% of all 12th graders.
- In the San Diego school district, the dropout rate was lower for the immigrant students participating in the study than for the general population of students. The multi-year dropout rate for the San Diego district (grades 9-12) overall was 16.2%, compared to 5.7% for immigrant students who participated in the study. This dropout rate for immigrants is even lower than that of Whites and Blacks (10.5% and 17.8%, respectively). Among the students from immigrant families, the highest dropout rate (8.5%) was among Hispanic students and the lowest was among Filipino students (4.0%).
- Students from immigrant families reported spending an average of over two hours per day on homework. Vietnamese students reported spending 2.89 hours on homework each day, compared to Mexican students who reported spending 2.05 hours on homework. Given that over 28.7% of the sample population were classified as limited-English-proficient, the data appear to indicate that foreign-born students compensate for language and other handicaps by significantly outworking their U.S.-born peers. From the end of junior high to the end of senior high, the level of effort put into school work increased across all nationalities. For example, while Mexican students reported in the first survey spending 1.73 hours a day on homework, during the second survey, they reported spending 2.05 hours a day on homework. Similarly, Vietnamese students reported spending 2.55 hours a day on homework in the first survey, but by the second survey the time increased to 2.89 hours.
- Immigrant students seem to have high levels of ambition. As young teenagers, 61% of the children of immigrant families aspired to advanced degrees and another 26% would not be satisfied with less than a college degree. Three years later, these proportions stayed the same, showing the persistence of these aspirations through the end of the high school years. Among U.S.-born children of Mexican immigrants, 36.4% indicated in the first survey that they felt they would achieve less than a college degree. The percentage decreased to 32.5% in response to this question during the second survey; and, in the first survey, 35.6% felt they would obtain a college degree, but when they were later asked the same question, this figure had risen to 44.4%.
- While education does tend to increase with each generation, third-generation Mexican Americans have not attained educational levels comparable to those of non-Hispanic White natives. Moreover, when the Mexican population is disaggregated by birth cohort, data show that both male and female third-generation Mexican Americans of the most recent cohorts have lower education levels than those in the second generation; in other words, educational attainment is actually decreasing with each generation. Specifically, current data show that slightly more than one-half (55.9%) of native-born Hispanics 25 years and older have attained a high school diploma, while the same is true for only one-third (33.7%) of comparable Hispanic foreign-born persons. The rates are closer for higher education, with one in nine (11.5%) native-born Hispanics attaining a college degree, compared to one in 14 (7.4%) foreign-born Hispanics. While the representation of immigrants with less education influences high school attainment among Hispanics overall, a significant gap in high school completion rates still remains between native-born Hispanics and non-Hispanic Whites. Therefore, the slow increase in Latino educational attainment levels over the past decade is linked to other factors (as discussed in this report) and cannot be explained solely or even primarily by the presence of Hispanic immigrants.

Endnotes

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IV. Elementary and Secondary School Teachers and Principals[*]

A. OVERVIEW

A major factor influencing children's success in education is role models. For Hispanic students, it is particularly important that there be Hispanic adult role models in the classroom and throughout the school. Hispanic teachers, administrators, and school personnel serve as role models for Hispanic students and can provide an important link between schools and parents. This is especially important because a significant portion of Hispanic parents lack the education necessary to provide their children with needed guidance about educational opportunities and their ability to pursue educational goals. Additionally, Latino school staff act as models for non-Hispanic students to demonstrate that professional positions are held by representatives of all racial/ethnic groups. Thus, the importance of the employment of Hispanic teachers and administrators cannot be overstated. While any trained and committed teacher can provide a high-quality education, the lack of Hispanic teachers contributes to the failure of school systems to respond to the linguistic, cultural, and social needs of Hispanic and non-Hispanic students alike.

This section provides information on American public and private school teachers at the elementary and secondary levels, including their race/ethnicity, qualifications, salaries, and years of experience, as well as information on the nation's principals. The data indicate that, overall, Hispanic teachers are underrepresented in the professional ranks and that they are concentrated in urban schools. Additionally, the data demonstrate that many of the schools offering bilingual education programs are unable to fill teaching positions for ESL or bilingual education teachers.

B. CHARACTERISTICS OF TEACHERS

Some research has indicated that seeing minority adults in positions of authority has positive effects on minority children and that minority teachers understand the backgrounds of their minority students. Yet the data indicate that, as of 1993-94, almost one-half (48.0%) of all schools still had no minority teachers at all (42% of all public schools and 66% of all private schools). In addition, the proportion of minority teachers (12.8%) is still far smaller than the proportion of minority students (32%). While the percentage of minority teachers has only increased slightly since the 1987-88 school year, the percentage of minority principals had increased at a somewhat higher rate by 1993-94 (11.0% to 14.0%).

During the 1993-94 school year, there were 2.9 million teachers working in the nation's elementary and secondary schools. As the data below describe, a major part of the elementary and secondary schools' teaching workforce is in the nation's public rather than private schools:

- Of the estimated 2.6 million public school and 380,000 private school teachers in the U.S., 4.1% were Hispanic, while 87.2% were White and 6.8% were Black. In public schools the

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[*] All data are from National Center for Education Statistics, *Schools and Staffing in the United States: A Statistical Profile, 1993-94*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education, July 1996.

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corresponding statistics indicate that 4.2% of the teaching workforce was Hispanic, while 86.5% of the teachers were White and 7.4% were Black. The private schools had a slightly higher percentage of White teachers; nine in ten (91.9%) of the teachers in private schools were White, compared to 3.1% who were Black and 3.2% who were Hispanic.

- As Figures 4.1 and 4.2 demonstrate, the largest percentages of Hispanic teachers were in schools with minority enrollments in excess of 20%. In addition:
  - The overall statistics for teachers in central city public schools show that 74.8% are White, 14.6% are Black, and 8.3% are Hispanic. However, center city public schools with more than a 20.0% minority student enrollment have a higher proportion of minority teachers; in those central city schools, Hispanics comprised one-tenth (10.8%) of all teachers and Blacks accounted for almost one-fifth (18.2%) of teachers.
  - In urban fringe public schools, Whites comprise 89.2% of the teachers, yet are 80.3% of teachers in schools with minority enrollment over 20.0%. By comparison, Blacks make up 5.1% of the teachers in urban fringe public schools, but in schools with minority enrollment over 20.0% they constitute 9.7% of the teacher population. Hispanics account for 3.5% of the general teaching population in urban fringe public schools, but accounted

Figure 4.1

PROPORTION OF ELEMENTARY & SECONDARY PUBLIC SCHOOL TEACHERS, 1993-94

	White	Black	Hispanic
Public Schools	86.5	7.4	4.2
Central City Schools	74.8	14.6	8.3
Minority Enrollment			
Less than 20%	95.3	2.3	1.4
More than 20%	68.4	18.2	10.8
Urban Fringe Schools	89.2	5.1	3.5
Minority Enrollment			
Less than 20%	96.6	1.2	1.0
More than 20%	80.3	9.7	6.5
Rural/Small Town Schools	92.5	4.1	2.0
Minority Enrollment			
Less than 20%	97.1	1.1	0.8
More than 20%	83.0	10.5	4.3

Source: *Schools and Staffing in the United States: A Statistical Profile, 1993-94*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

for 6.5% of the teachers in those schools in which the minority enrollment is over 20.0%.

- In rural/small-town public schools, Whites accounted for 92.5% of the teacher population, while Blacks and Hispanics accounted for 4.1% and 2.0%, respectively. In rural schools with minority enrollment rates over 20.0%, the percentage of Whites teaching at these school decreases to 83.0%, while the percentages for Blacks and Hispanics more than doubles to 10.5% and 4.3%, respectively.
- Teachers in central city private schools include 88.6% who are White, 4.8% who are Black, and 4.2% who are Hispanic. However, for central city private schools in which the minority enrollment is over 20.0%, 77.1% of the teachers are White, 10.7% are Black, and 7.9% are Hispanic.
- The pattern is similar in urban fringe private schools where Whites make up 93.5%, Blacks make up 2.0%, and Hispanics make up 2.9% of the teacher population. Yet in urban private schools in which minority enrollment is over 20.0%, 84.6% of the teachers are White, 5.0% are Black, and 6.5% are Hispanic.
- In rural private schools, the percentage of White teachers decreased relative to the proportion of minority students. For example, Whites make up 96.4% of the teachers in rural private schools, while Blacks comprise 1.2% and Hispanics account for 1.7%. However, in schools with a larger percentage of minority students,

Figure 4.2

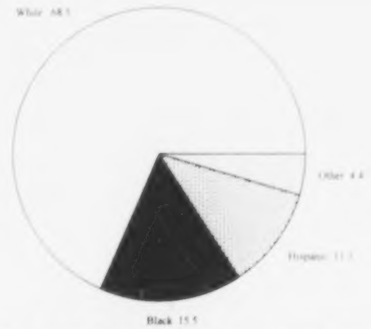
PROPORTION OF ELEMENTARY & SECONDARY PRIVATE SCHOOL TEACHERS, 1993-94

	White	Black	Hispanic
Private Schools	91.9	3.1	3.2
Central City Schools	88.6	4.8	4.2
Minority Enrollment			
Less than 20%	96.1	1.2	2.2
More than 20%	77.1	10.7	7.9
Urban Fringe Schools	93.5	2.0	2.9
Minority Enrollment			
Less than 20%	96.5	0.7	1.9
More than 20%	84.6	5.0	6.5
Rural/Small Town Schools	96.4	1.2	1.7
Minority Enrollment			
Less than 20%	96.5	1.1	1.8
More than 20%	94.0	2.6	2.1

Source: *Schools and Staffing in the United States: A Statistical Profile, 1993-94*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

Figure 4.3

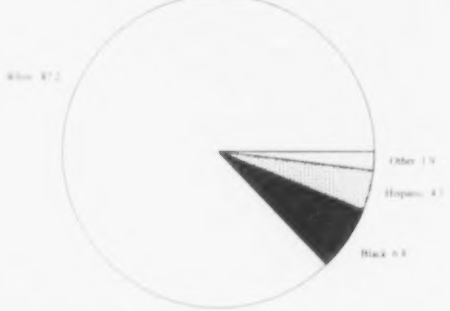
Public and Private School Students by Race/Ethnicity, 1993-94



Source: *Schools and Staffing in the United States: A Statistical Profile, 1993-94*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

Figure 4.4

Public and Private School Teachers by Race/Ethnicity, 1993-94



Source: *Schools and Staffing in the United States: A Statistical Profile, 1993-94*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

the proportion of White teachers decreases to 94.0%, while that of Blacks and Hispanics increases to 2.6% and 2.1%, respectively.

Over the past 10 years the presence of Hispanic students and teachers in the nation's schools has increased significantly. The Hispanic population in public schools increased from 9.1% of all students in the 1987-88 school year to 11.5% in the 1993-94 school year. During the same period, the percentage of Hispanic public school teachers grew from 2.9% to 4.1%. According to NCES, the percentage of Hispanic students in the 1996-97 school year exceeded 13%.

While Hispanic teachers appear to be concentrated in areas with high minority enrollments, U.S. elementary and secondary school teachers, as a group, are considerably less diverse than the students they teach (see Figures 4.3 and 4.4). Hispanics made up 11.5% of the students enrolled in grades K-12 in the 1993-94 school year, but represented only 4.1% of the K-12 teaching force. Similarly, Blacks accounted for 15.5% of students, but only 6.8% of the teaching workforce. On the other hand, White teachers were overrepresented in the K -12 teaching force relative to the proportion of White students in these grades (87.2% vs. 68.5%).

As role models for both Hispanic and non-Hispanic students, Hispanic teachers are in short supply. Proportionately, there are approximately three times more Hispanic students in U.S. schools as there are Hispanic teachers. The ratio of Black students (15.5%) to Black teachers (8.7%) is slightly less than two to one.

C. TEACHER CREDENTIALS

Figure 4.5 presents the data on the highest degrees held by public and private school teachers during the 1993-94 school year. Overall, public school teachers are more likely than private school teachers to hold master's degrees. In addition:

- Hispanic teachers are less likely than either their White or Black colleagues to hold degrees above the bachelor's level. About three in 10 (29.8%) Hispanic public school teachers hold a master's degree, compared to more than two in five (44.6%) Black and White (42.5%) public school teachers. In private schools, one-fifth (19.9%) of Hispanics, one-fourth (26.4%) of Blacks, and three-tenths (30.2%) of Whites hold master's degrees.

- The highest degree held is the bachelor's degree for 62.8% of Hispanic public school teachers, compared to 48.4% of Black and 51.8% of White teachers. In private schools, 57.4% of Hispanics, 55.8% of Blacks, and 59.4% of Whites hold only a bachelor's degree.
- The percentage of Hispanics holding special advanced education degrees and doctoral degrees in the public schools is slightly higher than that for Whites, but less than that for Blacks; 4.6%, 4.4%, and 5.4%, respectively. Yet in private schools, Hispanic and Black teachers are more likely than White teachers to have earned an education specialist degree; 4.4% of Hispanic teachers and 4.8% of Black teachers have such a degree, compared to 2.6% of White teachers.
- At both public and private schools, Hispanic teachers are more likely to hold doctorates than either Blacks or Whites; 1.4% of Hispanic, 0.9% Black, and 0.7% of White public school teachers hold such degrees. Private school data show that 2.3% of Hispanic teachers have a doctorate, compared to 1.6% of Whites and 1.0% of Blacks.

Figure 4.5

Highest Degree Held by Public & Private School Teacher, 1993-94

	None	Associate's	Bachelor's	Master's Specialist	Education	Doctorate
Public School Teachers						
White	0.5	0.1	51.8	42.5	4.4	0.7
Black	0.5	0.2	48.4	44.6	5.4	0.9
Hispanic	0.9	0.5	62.8	29.8	4.6	1.4
Private School Teachers						
White	4.8	1.3	59.4	30.2	2.6	1.6
Black	8.3	3.7	55.8	26.4	4.8	1.0
Hispanic	11.1	4.9	57.4	19.9	4.4	2.3

Source: *Digest of Education Statistics 1996*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

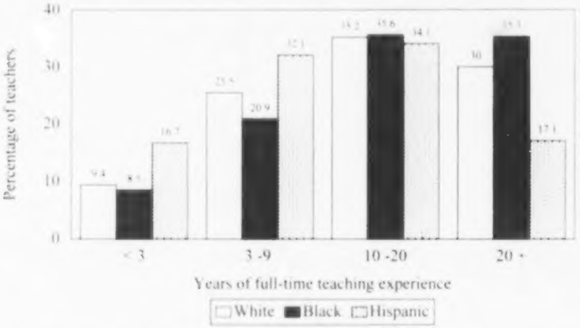
D. YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Overall, Hispanic public school teachers tend to have taught for fewer years than their Black or White non-Hispanic peers (see Figure 4.6). In particular, they are much less likely to have taught for 20 years or more; only 17.1% of Hispanics have taught for more than 20 years, compared to about 30.0% of Whites and more than 35.3% of Blacks. Of those public school teachers who have less than three years of teaching experience, 16.7% are Hispanic compared to 8.5% who are Black, and 9.4% who are White. However, the proportion of Hispanic teachers who have three to nine years of experience is greater than that of Whites or Blacks (32.1%, 25.5%, and 20.9%, respectively).

As shown in Figure 4.7, private school teachers overall have less teaching experience than public school teachers. The majority of public school teachers of all three racial/ethnic groups have at least 10 years of experience, but this is not true for any of the three groups of private school teachers. Black and Hispanic private school teachers are less likely than Whites to have 20 or more years of experience; 16.0% of White teachers, compared to 10.3% of Blacks and 11.1% of Hispanics, have more than 20 years of teaching experience. As is the case with public school teachers, a higher proportion of Hispanic teachers have three to nine years of teaching experience, compared to Blacks and Whites.

Figure 4.6

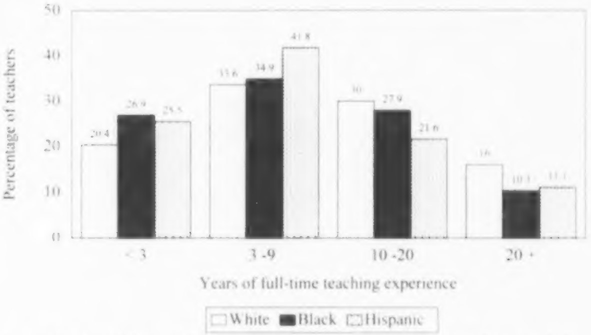
Years of Full-Time Teaching Experience
for Public School Teachers by Race/Ethnicity, 1993-94



Source: *Digest of Education Statistics 1996*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, DC (1996)

Figure 4.7

Years of Full-Time Teaching Experience
for Private School Teachers by Race/Ethncity, 1993-94



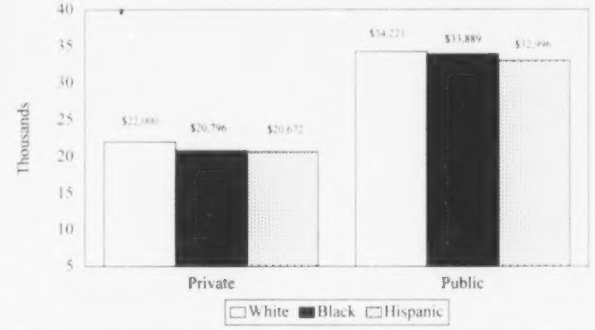
Source: *Digest of Education Statistics 1996*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, DC (1996)

E. TEACHER SALARIES

Public school teachers earn considerably higher salaries than their private school counterparts (see Figure 4.8). While that trend is true for Hispanic teachers, they earn slightly less, on average, than either Black or White public school teachers. For 1993-94, Hispanic public school teachers earned an average base salary of $32,996, compared with $33,889 for Black and $34,221 for White teachers. Hispanic teachers in private schools earn much less than in public schools, with an average salary of $20,672, which is comparable to that of Black teachers ($20,796) and less than that of White teachers ($22,000). The salary difference may be explained, in part, by the fact that while Hispanic teachers in private schools are more likely than Whites to hold either an education specialist degree or a doctorate, they tend to have fewer years of teaching experience.

Figure 4.8

Base Annual Salary for Public and Private School Teachers, 1993-94



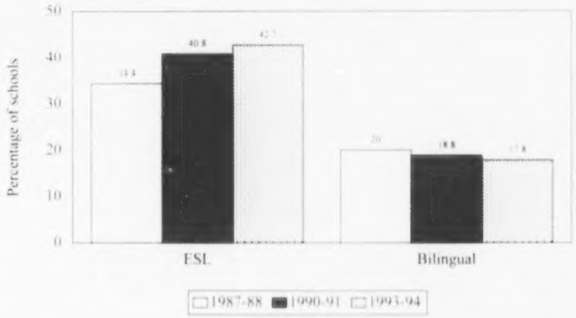
Source: *Digest of Education Statistics 1996*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, DC (1996)

F. BILINGUAL EDUCATION AND ENGLISH-AS-A-SECOND LANGUAGE

The percentage of public schools offering English-as-a-Second-Language (ESL) classes has increased since 1987-88, but there has been a slight decrease in the percentage offering bilingual education (see Figure 4.9). Since many Limited English Proficient (LEP) students are concentrated in public schools (5.0% of public school enrollment is LEP students compared to 1.0% of private school enrollment), public schools are far more likely than private schools to offer either bilingual education or ESL instruction. During the 1993-94 school year, 17.8% of the nation's public schools provided bilingual education, while 42.7% provided ESL instruction. In comparison, 1993-94 data indicate that only about one in 25 of the nation's private schools offered bilingual education (4.2%) and one in nine provided ESL (11.3%).

Figure 4.9

Public Schools Providing English as a Second Language(ESL) & Bilingual Education Programs, 1987-88 to 1993-94



Source: *Schools and Staffing Survey in the United States. A Statistical Profile. 1993-94, 1990-91 & 1993-94*, National Center for Education Statistics, Washington, D.C.

The availability of ESL and bilingual teachers appears to have increased between 1990-91 and 1993-94 (see Figure 4.10). In 1990-91, more than one-third (37.1%) of schools with vacancies in ESL and bilingual education found them very difficult or impossible to fill. For 1993-94, one-fourth (25.8%) of schools were having difficulty filling these positions. For public schools, ESL and bilingual education vacancies were considered the most difficult to fill in both years.

G. SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

The percentage of minority principals has increased from 11% to 13.8% from 1987-88 to 1993-94. In the public schools during the 1993-94 academic year, 4.1% of the principals were Hispanic, 10.1% were Black, and 84.3% were White. By comparison, 2.1% of the private school principals were Hispanic, 4.2% were Black, and 92.5% were White.

Figures 4.11 and 4.12 provide the demographic location of public and private school principals. These data show that in 1993-94:

- Like Hispanic public school teachers, the majority of Hispanic public school principals are concentrated in central city schools where they comprise 8.3% of all principals, compared to 65.4% who are White and 24.3% who are Black. Hispanic public school principals are most likely to be heading schools with a minority enrollment of over 20.0%; one-tenth (10.7%) of the principals in those schools were Hispanic, compared to three-tenths (30.5%) who were Black and more than one-half (56.8%) who were White.

Figure 4.10

PERCENTAGE OF SCHOOLS WITH VACANCIES IN ESL/BILINGUAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS THEY FOUND VERY DIFFICULT OR IMPOSSIBLE TO FILL, 1990-91 & 1993-94

All Schools	Percentage
1990-91	37.1
1993-94	25.8
Public Schools	
1990-91	38.2
1993-94	27.2
Private Schools	
1990-91	26.3
1993-94	*

* Sample size too small for reliable estimate.

Source: *Schools and Staffing Surveys*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C.

- In urban fringe and large town schools with minority populations over 20.0%, the percentage of Hispanic and Black principals was 8.5% and 16.9%, respectively. Percentages for rural and small town schools with over 20% minority population were 4.9% for Hispanics and 11.3% for Blacks.
- There was a far smaller percentage of Black and Hispanic principals in private schools compared to public schools, regardless of their location. For example, Hispanics comprised only 4.7% of the principals in central city private schools with minority enrollments greater than 20.0%, while Blacks accounted for 15.3% and Whites accounted for 75.6%. By comparison, in public central city schools Hispanics accounted for 10.7% of the principals in schools with minority enrollments greater than 20.0%, while Blacks accounted for 30.5%, and Whites accounted for 56.8%.
- In private urban fringe and large towns with 20.0% or more minority enrollment, the percentage of Hispanic principals was greater than the percentage of Black principals. While Hispanics were 5.6% of all principals, Blacks were 2.1% of the total; the large majority (90.2%) of the principals in such schools were White.
- In rural areas and small towns, the percentage of Black principals in private schools with enrollments greater than 20.0% was 7.9%; there was no measurable percentage of Hispanic principals in those schools.

Figure 4.11

PROPORTION OF PUBLIC SCHOOL PRINCIPALS BY RACE/ETHNICITY, MINORITY ENROLLMENT, AND SCHOOL LOCATION, 1993-94

	White	Black	Hispanic
Public Schools	84.3	10.1	4.1
Central City Schools	65.4	24.3	8.3
Minority Enrollment			
Less than 20%	92.1	3.9	1.9
More than 20%	56.8	30.5	10.7
Urban Fringe Schools	84.9	8.8	4.5
Minority Enrollment			
Less than 20%	95.7	1.7	1.1
More than 20%	72.2	16.9	8.5
Rural/Small Town Schools	93.1	3.8	1.8
Minority Enrollment			
Less than 20%	97.9	0.7	0.6
More than 20%	81.3	11.3	4.9

Source: *Schools and Staffing in the United States: A Statistical Profile, 1993-94*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

Figure 4.12

PROPORTION OF PRIVATE SCHOOL PRINCIPALS BY RACE/ETHNICITY, MINORITY ENROLLMENT, AND SCHOOL LOCATION, 1993-94

	White	Black	Hispanic
Private Schools	92.5	4.2	2.1
Central City Schools	86.3	9.1	2.6
Minority Enrollment			
Less than 20%	97.4	1.0	1.0
More than 20%	75.6	15.3	4.7
Urban Fringe Schools	95.5	1.2	2.6
Minority Enrollment			
Less than 20%	98.3	*	1.1
More than 20%	90.2	2.1	5.6
Rural/Small Town Schools	97.5	1.1	0.8
Minority Enrollment			
Less than 20%	98.5	*	1.0
More than 20%	87.6	7.9	0

* Sample size too small for reliable estimate.

Source: *Schools and Staffing in the United States: A Statistical Profile, 1993-94*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

II. SUMMARY

Data show that Latino students are exposed to few Hispanic role models in their academic careers. Hispanic teachers are severely underrepresented in both the public and private teaching and administrative workforce relative to both the nation's total Latino and the Latino student populations. Moreover, the few Latino teachers in the public school system tend to be concentrated in schools with a high percentage of minority enrollment. As a group, Hispanic teachers are less likely to hold a degree above the bachelor's level, have fewer years of teaching experience, and earn lower salaries than their White and Black counterparts. However, both public and private Hispanic school teachers are more likely than Whites or Blacks to hold a doctorate. Additionally, while more ESL and bilingual teachers are available than in previous years, schools offering these programs are still having difficulties filling such vacancies. Thus, it is necessary to improve the representation and compensation of qualified Latino teachers and administrators in both the public and private school systems as an added factor in helping to improve the education of Hispanic students.

V. Postsecondary Education

A. OVERVIEW

A college education has always been seen as a means of upward mobility, especially for economically or socially disadvantaged groups. In recent years, postsecondary education has become more accessible to all segments of the population. Over the last two decades, as the economy has become increasingly complex and reliant on higher levels of literacy and numeracy, there has been a rise in educational attainment across all ethnic groups. The U.S. Department of Education attributes this trend to both the growth in the population of Hispanic and Asian students and to their increasing education levels.

As the following data show, however, there continues to be a gap between Hispanics and their White and Black counterparts in many areas related to educational access, achievement, and attainment. Further, there is statistical evidence that differences in course-taking patterns in high school, educational aspirations, and college attendance and completion influence each attainment indicator for the Latino community.

This section will provide information which shows that while the number of Hispanics who are enrolling in and graduating from college has increased in absolute numbers, they remain underrepresented on university campuses and among degree recipients, both relative to other groups and as a proportion of their total population. Additionally, the gap between White and Hispanic student college transition rates[1] has increased since 1980.

Hispanic college students tend to concentrate in different fields, have a higher number of disruptions in their education, and are only half as likely to complete four years of college compared to non-Hispanic White students. Hispanics who do complete college take longer, on average, than their White counterparts and work more and longer hours during their postsecondary careers than both their White and Black counterparts. Hispanic male and female differences in educational attainment have changed significantly over time, with an almost three-fold increase in Hispanic female college graduates over the past 20 years.

B. SAT SCORES

Experts in higher education understand the limitations of using standardized test scores to predict academic performance. At most, even the College Board, which administers many of the standardized tests, "claims only that the SAT correlates with first-year grades a little less than half the time (42 percent)."[2] Moreover, many colleges and universities are relying less on SAT scores while developing multi-assessment admissions policies. Yet, in the wake of *Hopwood v. The State of Texas*, and Proposition 209 in California, both of which have ended traditional affirmative action programs and have led to huge declines in minority enrollment in the Texas and California state university systems, many schools stills use SAT test scores or an equivalent as the principal basis for admissions.

Despite efforts to de-emphasize standardized tests, they remain an important factor in tracking the academic progress of students. Thus, it is important to track trends in student performance on such tests. Data indicate that while Hispanics tend to perform better than Blacks on the SAT exams, both groups' scores continue to lag behind those of Whites. Figures 5.1 and 5.2 present the data on the math and verbal SAT scores for two years in a 10-year period. All groups have experienced a gradual rise in their total scores between 1987 and

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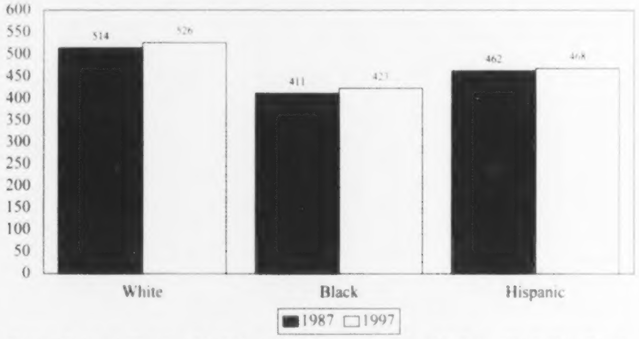
Figure 5.1

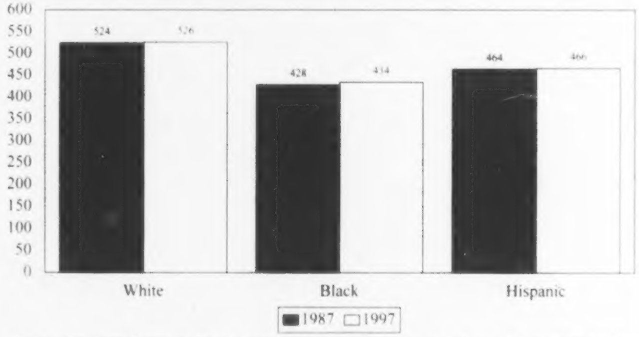
Average Math SAT Scores
by Race/Ethnicity, 1987 and 1997



Source: *Summary Statistics. The College Board's Annual Survey of Colleges*, The College Board, New York (1997)

Figure 5.2

Average Verbal SAT Scores
by Race/Ethnicity, 1987 and 1997



Source: *Summary Statistics. The College Board's Annual Survey of Colleges*, The College Board, New York (1997)

1997. However, while the gap between Whites and Blacks decreased by four points, the gap between Whites and Hispanics increased by six points. In 1987, the average total SAT score for Whites was 1038, compared to 839 for Blacks and 926 for Hispanics. By 1997, the scores for Whites, Blacks, and Hispanics increased to 1052, 857, and 934, respectively. Additionally, the increase in the test scores for Whites and Blacks was double that of Hispanics. Between 1987 and 1997, math scores for Whites increased by 12 points, from 514 to 526; the scores for Blacks also increased by 12 points from 411 to 423. However, the increase for Hispanics was only six points, from 462 to 468. On the verbal test, the scores for Whites and Hispanics increased two points each between 1987 and 1997, from 524 to 526 and from 464 to 466, respectively. The scores for Blacks increased six points, from 428 to 434 over that period.

Given the recent bans on affirmative action in public institutions in the two states with the largest concentrations of Latinos, colleges and universities may again focus on tests scores for admissions decisions, despite recent steps to develop broader admissions policies. Thus, the challenge is for colleges and universities to identify promising alternatives to promote diversity. Otherwise, many of the nation's public colleges and universities may see the declines in minority enrollment that both California and Texas have recently experienced.

C. ENROLLMENT STATISTICS

Hispanics continue to be underrepresented at institutions of higher education despite an increase in their enrollment since 1988. In 1994, Whites comprised 74.3% of the undergraduate student body, compared to 11.0% and 8.1% for Blacks and Hispanics, respectively (see Figure 5.3). The data show a drop in the enrollment rate of Whites since 1988, when they comprised 80.2% of undergraduate students. Both Hispanics and Blacks experienced increases in enrollment rates since 1988, when they accounted for 5.7% and 9.4% of the nation's undergraduates, respectively. At the graduate level, in 1994 Whites accounted for 83.5% of students, compared to 7.2% and 4.1% for Blacks and Hispanics, respectively. By contrast, 1988 data show that 87.3% of graduate students were White, compared to 5.8% who were Black and 3.0% who were Hispanic.

In 1995, Hispanic high school graduates were less likely than White and Black high school graduates to be enrolled in college. Between 1988 and 1995, the gap in the percentage of White and Hispanic high school graduates aged 18 - 24 years old increased, while the gap between White and Black students decreased (see Figure 5.4). In 1988, 38.4% of White high school graduates aged 18 - 24 years old were enrolled in college, compared to 27.8% of Blacks (a difference of 10.6 percentage points) and 30.8% of Hispanics (a difference of 7.6 percentage points). By 1995, the enrollment rate for Whites was 43.7%, compared to 35.2% for Blacks and 34.9% for Hispanics (a gap of 8.8 percentage points).

Figure 5.3

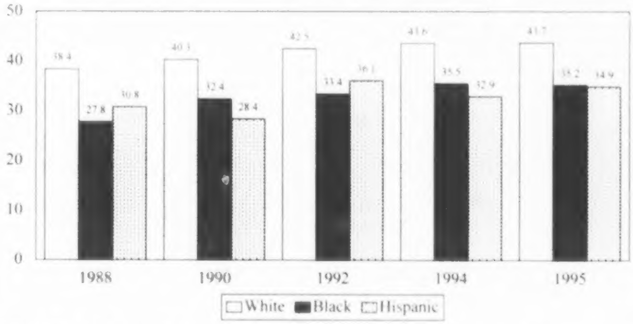
Enrollment Rates by Level of Study and Race/Ethnicity, 1988-94

		1988	1990	1992	1994
All Students	White	81.1	79.9	77.5	75.4
	Black	8.9	9.3	9.9	10.5
	Hispanic	5.4	5.8	6.8	7.6
Undergraduates	White	80.2	79	76.4	74.3
	Black	9.4	9.8	10.4	11
	Hispanic	5.7	6.2	7.2	8.1
Graduate	White	87.3	86.6	85.3	83.5
	Black	5.8	5.9	6.3	7.2
	Hispanic	3	3.3	3.8	4.1

Source: *Digest of Educational Statistics 1996*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

Figure 5.4

College Enrollment Rates of High School Graduates Aged 18 - 24 Years-Old by Race/Ethnicity, 1988-95



Source: *The Condition of Education 1997*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1997)

Data on the immediate transition from high school to college represent one indicator of the number of students who will ever enroll in college, since most students who enroll in college do so right after high school.[3] Such data provide insight into the accessibility of higher education, as well as the value of obtaining a college education as opposed to taking other career paths.[4] Differences in college transition rates between Whites and Hispanics have grown over time. In 1987, 58.6% of White high school graduates aged 16 - 24 years old enrolled in college within one year of graduation, while 33.5% of Hispanics and 52.2% of Blacks did so. By 1995, 64.3% of Whites, 53.7% of Hispanics, and 51.2% of Blacks entered college by October following their high school graduation.[5]

Some of the factors which affect the transition from high school to college include family poverty and low educational aspirations. According to NCES, high school graduates from high-income families are more likely than high school graduates from low-income families to go directly to college. Given that 1996 poverty data indicated that both Hispanics (29.3%) and Blacks (28.3%) were over two times more likely than Whites (11.2%) to be poor, it appears that poverty status is a significant factor in the small proportion of Latino students enrolled in college. Similarly, if students have low expectations of academic achievement it may affect their decisions to go to college. Hispanic students have lower educational aspirations than Whites (see Chapter 3). In 1992, nearly one-third (31.3%) of Hispanic high school students aspired to complete their formal education with two years or less of either vocational training or college. In contrast, approximately one-fourth of White and Black students planned to end their postsecondary careers at this point.

Figure 5.5

TOTAL FALL ENROLLMENT IN INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION BY LEVEL OF STUDY, GENDER, AND RACE/ETHNICITY, 1980 - 1994

	1980	1988	1990	1992	1994
All Students					
Total Hispanic	4.0	5.4	5.8	6.8	7.6
Hispanic Men	2.0	2.4	2.6	3.0	3.4
Hispanic Women	2.0	2.9	3.2	3.8	4.2
Undergraduates					
Total Hispanic	4.2	5.7	6.2	7.2	8.1
Hispanic Men	2.1	2.6	2.8	3.2	3.6
Hispanic Women	2.2	3.1	3.4	4.0	4.5
Graduate					
Total Hispanic	2.6	3.0	3.3	3.7	4.1
Hispanic Men	1.3	1.3	1.5	1.6	1.8
Hispanic Women	1.3	1.7	1.9	2.1	2.4
First-Professional					
Total Hispanic	2.4	3.6	4.0	4.4	4.7
Hispanic Men	1.7	2.2	2.4	2.6	2.6
Hispanic Women	0.7	1.4	1.6	1.8	2.0

Source: *Digest of Education Statistics 1996*, National Center for Educational Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

Hispanic females made significant educational gains relative to Hispanic males since 1980 in both undergraduate and graduate enrollment rates (see Figure 5.5).[6] In 1980, Hispanic women accounted for 2.2% of the undergraduate student population, while the enrollment rate of Hispanic men was about the same at 2.1%; however, by 1994 the enrollment rate of Hispanic females had more than doubled. Hispanic female enrollment increased to 4.5%, while the rate increased to 3.6% for Hispanic men. However, with respect to professional degrees, data show that a slightly smaller percentage of Hispanic females than Hispanic males were enrolled in such programs in 1994;[7] Hispanic women accounted for 2.0% of students enrolled in such degree programs, compared to 2.6% of Hispanic men.

Among the top 10 states with the highest percentage of Latinos, Hispanic enrollment in institutions of higher education remains, on average, consistently well below the Hispanic proportion of the state's population (see Figure 5.6). With the exception of Florida and Illinois, which possess the most equitable distribution between state and student Hispanic populations, all other states with the largest Hispanic populations display significant gaps between the percentage of Hispanics of the total state population and the percentage of Latinos in college. The largest discrepancies between total state Hispanic populations and Latino student participation in higher education are in the states with the largest total Hispanic populations — California, Arizona and Texas.

Hispanic students have a higher tendency than non-Hispanic students to enroll in schools offering either vocational certificates or associate degrees. In particular, a higher percentage of Hispanics and Blacks are enrolled in two-year colleges

Figure 5.6

HISPANIC ENROLLMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION IN STATES WITH LARGEST HISPANIC POPULATIONS (ESTIMATED AS OF 1994), 1980 - 1995

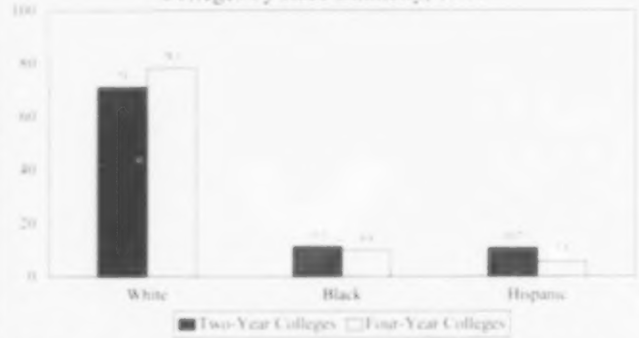
	Hispanic % of State Pop (1994)	1980	1990	1993	1995
California	28.4	9.7	13.4	18.5	19.7
Texas	27.3	12.7	16.9	19.2	20.5
New York	13.7	5.5	7.9	8.9	9.6
Florida	13.4	8.1	11.5	12.8	13.5
Illinois	8.9	2.5	6.9	7.8	8.1
New Jersey	11.0	4.3	6.9	8.2	9.5
Arizona	20.1	7.6	11.6	13.5	14.4
New Mexico	39.0	24.8	28.1	30.2	31.3
Colorado	13.5	5.7	7.7	8.8	9.2
Massachusetts	5.6	1.5	3.2	4.0	4.4

Source: *State Comparisons of Education Statistics, 1969-70 to 1993-94*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1994); State Population Data, Population Division, U.S. Bureau of the Census, Washington, D.C. (1994)

than in four-year colleges (see Figure 5.7). In 1994, Hispanics accounted for 10.7% of the students enrolled in two-year institutions, but accounted for 5.5% of the student population enrolled in four-year institutions. By comparison, Blacks accounted for 11.3% of students in two-year colleges and 9.9% of students in four year schools, while 71.0% of Whites attended two-year institutions and 78.3% attended four-year colleges.

Figure 5.7

Enrollment Rates in Two- and Four-Year Colleges by Race/Ethnicity, 1994



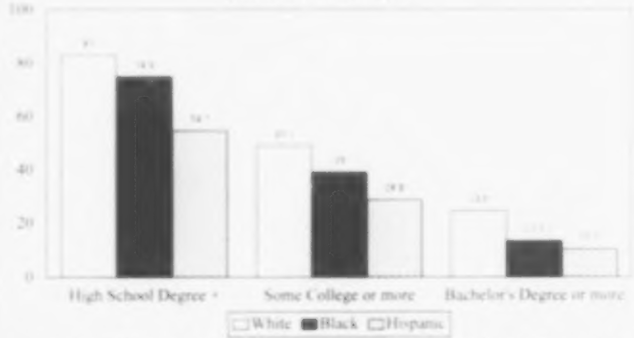
Source: *Digest of Educational Statistics 1996*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

D. DEGREES CONFERRED

As more Hispanics are attending college, the number of postsecondary degrees awarded to Hispanics has increased, but their rates of educational attainment are not in line with either their overall population rates or their college enrollment rates. Figures 5.6 through 5.9 demonstrate the academic areas in which Hispanics are concentrating, as well as the percentage of the postsecondary degrees they are receiving.

Figure 5.8

Educational Attainment of Persons 25 Years and Older by Race/Ethnicity, 1997



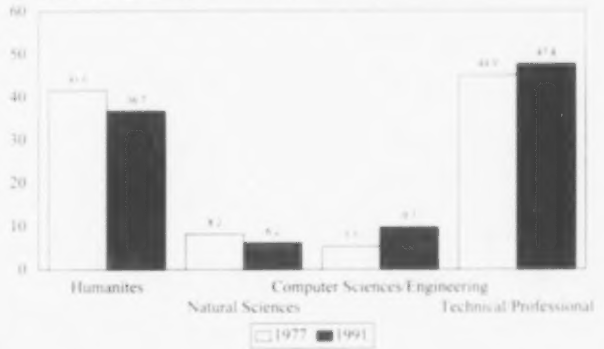
Source: Current Population Reports, Educational Attainment in the United States, Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce, Washington, D.C. (1997)

- In 1997, approximately one-fourth of Hispanics aged 25 years and older had completed some college, compared to nearly one-half of Whites and nearly two-fifths of Blacks. About one in ten Hispanic adults had obtained a bachelor's degree or more in 1997, compared to slightly less than one-quarter of Whites and more than one-eighth of Blacks (see Figure 5.8).

- Since 1977, Hispanics are still less likely to get physical sciences and mathematics degrees; as of 1991, the most favored majors of Hispanic students have changed from humanities and social/behavioral sciences to technical and professional degrees, with the single largest area of concentration in business and management (see Figure 5.9). In 1977, 41.6% of degrees

Figure 5.9

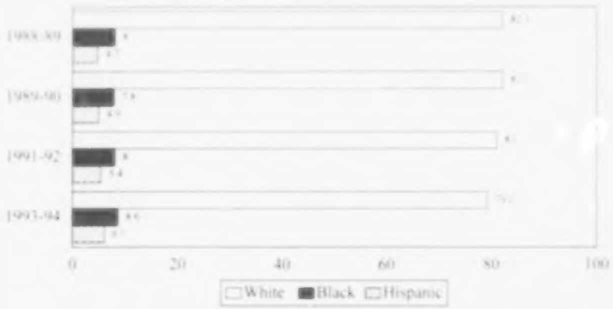
Bachelor's Degrees Conferred to Hispanics, 1977 and 1991



Source: *High School and Beyond*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1992)

Figure 5.10

Associate's Degrees Conferred by Race/Ethnicity, 1988 - 1994



Source: *Digest of Educational Statistics 1996*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

awarded to Hispanics were in the humanities, while only 5.3% of the degrees were in computer science and engineering. By 1991, over one-third of Hispanics graduating from college (36.7%) received degrees in the humanities, but there were increases in the percentages of Hispanics who received computer science and engineering, and technical/professional degrees. Specifically, the percentages of Hispanics receiving a computer science and engineering degree increased from 5.3% to 9.7% from 1977 to 1991. Similarly, the percentage of Hispanics receiving technical and professional degrees increased from 44.9% in 1977 to 47.4% in 1991.

- In 1994, Hispanics received 6.1% of the associate degrees awarded; however, they comprised 10.7% of all students enrolled in two-year institutions (see Figures 5.7 and 5.10).
- In the same year, Hispanics made up 8.1% of undergraduate students, but received only 4.3% of the bachelor's degrees awarded. Whites accounted for 74.3% of the undergraduate student population, but received 80.3% of the bachelors degrees conferred (see Figures 5.3 and 5.11). However, between the 1988-89 and the 1993-94 school years, the percentage of Hispanics receiving a bachelor's degree increased from 2.9% to 4.3%.

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- While 4.1% of students in graduate school were Hispanic in 1994, only 3.1% received a master's degree, but this rate is up from 2.3% in 1988-89 (see Figures 5.3 and 5.12).

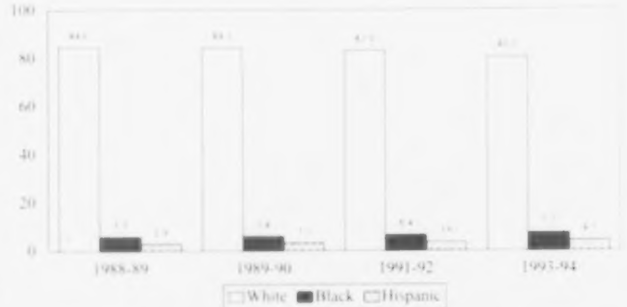
E. CONTINUITY OF ENROLLMENT

As discussed above, there has been a marked change in the number and percentage increase in bachelor's degrees conferred to Hispanics and other students. However, while more students are enrolling in and graduating from college, some are experiencing personal, financial, and academic problems which disrupt their college careers. Non-completion rates are not indicative of failure but, rather, show that students "may have an unrealistic view as to how much time, effort, and money will be needed to complete postsecondary education programs."[17] Generally, data on persistence toward a bachelor's degree demonstrate that Hispanics (23.3%) are less likely than Whites (36.9%) or Blacks (24.8%) to complete a degree within four years; and that Hispanics (34.9%) are more likely than Whites (25.0%) and Blacks (32.2%) to take more than six years to receive a bachelor's degree (see Figure 5.13).

A 1996 longitudinal study on students enrolled during the 1989-90 school year indicated the following:[18]

Figure 5.11

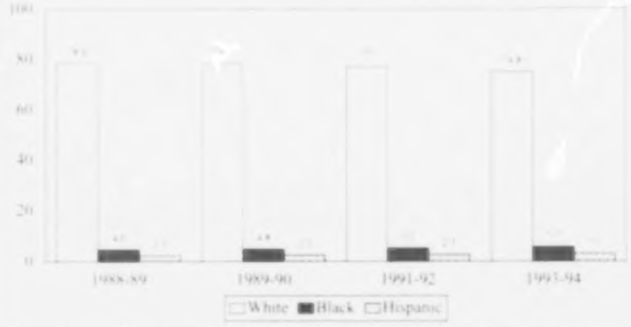
Bachelor's Degrees Conferred by Race/Ethnicity, 1988 - 1994



Source: *Digest of Education Statistics 1996*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

Figure 5.12

Master's Degrees Conferred by Race/Ethnicity, 1988 - 1994



Source: *Digest of Education Statistics 1996*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

- Although 37.2% of Hispanic high school graduates aged 16-24 were enrolled in two-year educational institutions in the fall of 1989, by 1994 only 16.3% had received an associate's degree. Of the remainder, 22.2% were still enrolled but had not received a degree, and 39.8% had neither received an associate's degree nor were enrolled in school at all.

- Of the 17.9% of Hispanic high school graduates enrolled in four-year institutions in 1989, fewer than one-third (32.4%) succeeded in obtaining a bachelor's degree by 1994.
- By 1994, 22.1% of Hispanic students pursuing a bachelor's degree were still enrolled but had not graduated and over one-third (36.6%) had effectively dropped out of their four-year educational institutions.

OERI conducted a longitudinal study from 1989 to 1994 to compare completion rates per initial degree objective among part-time and full-time students. The findings indicated that first-time beginning students seeking bachelor's degrees in 1989-90 were more likely than those seeking associate's degrees to obtain their degree objective within five years of initial enrollment.[19] OERI found that full-time enrollment is associated with higher rates of persistence and attainment; to illustrate, 51.7% of full-time students had completed a degree within five years, while 43.4% of part-time college students failed to get a degree or still be enrolled after five years.[20] Given that Hispanics have high rates of part-time enrollment (see Figure 5.16), they are less likely to obtain a college degree.

Figure 5.13

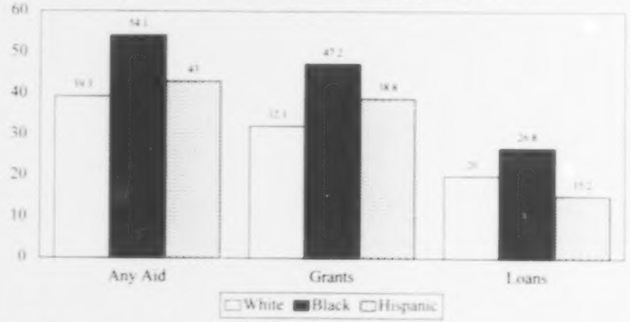
College Graduates Receiving a Bachelor's Degree within Various Years of Starting College, 1993

	4 years or less (%)	more than 4 up to 5 years (%)	more than 5 up to 6 years (%)	more than 6 years (%)
White	36.9	27.5	10.5	25
Black	24.8	27.8	15.2	32.2
Hispanic	23.3	28.7	13.1	34.9

Source: *The Condition of Education 1996*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996).

Figure 5.14

Undergraduate Receiving College Financial Aid by Source and Race/Ethnicity, 1992-1993



Source: *Digest of Education Statistics 1996*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996).

F. FINANCING A COLLEGE EDUCATION

Figure 5.15

Employed College Students 16 - 24 Years-Old
By Race and Hours Worked per Week, 1988 - 1993

		1988	1990	1992	1993
White	Total Hours	48.9	48.6	50.5	50.1
	20 or more	23.1	25.1	27.2	26.5
	35 or more	[illegible]	9.2	5.9	[illegible]
Black	Total Hours	31.8	29.8	30.2	28.9
	20 or more	18.6	[illegible]	19.9	18
	35 or more	3.3	2.8	4.4	3.8
Hispanic	Total Hours	40.9	41.7	47	46.7
	20 or more	28.7	28	29.4	27.1
	35 or more	6.7	8.7	4.7	9.1

Source: Indicator of the Month: Working While in College, Office of Educational Research and Improvement, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996).

There is evidence that dependence upon loans and fear of debt inhibit many students from ever attending college.[21] Low family incomes, tuition levels that continue to outstrip inflation by a nearly two-to-one ratio, and the stagnant or declining incomes of many Hispanic families are deterring many Latino students from pursuing postsecondary education.

Financial aid is positively related to whether students seeking sub-baccalaureate degrees will ultimately obtain a degree. Relatively few candidates for associate's degrees, however, received financial aid during 1989-90.

THE EDUCATIONAL STATUS OF HISPANIC ADULTS

Academic achievement is an important factor in an individual's socioeconomic well-being. For example, on average, people who do not graduate from high school earn $12,809 annually, compared to those with a B.A. who earn $32,629 a year. Given the strong correlation between education, employment, and earnings, a brief examination of the education of adult Hispanics (25 and over) is relevant to this Hispanic education profile. The following statistical overview shows that Hispanic adults tend to have low levels of education attainment which affects their employment outcomes, as well as their earnings and income.

EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

- **In 1994, among Hispanics 25 years old and older, 10.8% had less than a 5th grade education. More specifically, 13.3% of Mexican Americans, 7.5% of Puerto Ricans, 5.4% of Cuban Americans, and 5.6% of Central and South Americans had less than a 5th grade education.[8]**
- **In 1996, 53.1% had graduated from high school, compared to 82.8% of Whites and 74.3% of Blacks.[9] Among Hispanic subgroups, the data indicate that Mexican Americans were the least likely and Cuban Americans were the most likely to obtain a diploma; 46.7% of Mexican Americans graduated from high school compared to 59.4% of Puerto Ricans, 64.1% of Cuban Americans, and 62.4% of Central and South Americans.[10]**

- In 1994, 77.4% of Mexican Americans, 72.2% of Puerto Ricans, 62.0% of Cuban Americans, and 65.9% of Central and South Americans reported that they had no college experience.[11]
- About one in fifteen (6.2%) Hispanics reported that he/she had obtained a bachelor's degree in 1994; subgroup data show that 4.4% of Mexican Americans received a bachelor's degree, compared to 6.9% of Puerto Ricans, 9.0% of Cuban Americans, and 8.3% of Central and South Americans.

LITERACY

- In 1992, the National Adult Literacy Survey (NALS) reported that Hispanics had the least years of schooling of all racial/ethnic groups. The average years of schooling for Whites was 12.8 years, compared to 11.6 years and 10.2 years for Blacks and Hispanics, respectively.
- NALS also reported that, overall, 21% of all adults performed at Level 1 (the lowest level in a measurement of one to five) on the Prose Literacy Scale.[12] Relative to their population rates, Hispanics were overrepresented in Level 1. While Hispanics comprised 10.0% of the population, they accounted for 23% of the adults performing at Level 1 on the Prose Literacy Scale. By comparison, Whites accounted for 76% of the population, but 51.0% of the Prose Level 1 population in 1992.

EMPLOYMENT, EARNINGS, AND POVERTY STATUS

- For Hispanics and all other groups, the higher the level of education, the more likely an individual is to be employed. In 1996, among Hispanics 25 years old and older, 51.3% of individuals who did not have a high school diploma were employed, compared to 69.9% of Hispanic high school graduates and 79.7% of Hispanic college graduates.[13]
- Hispanic college graduates aged 25-64 are more likely to work in professional and managerial positions than Hispanic high school dropouts and graduates, who are more likely to work in the service and laborer industries.[14] In 1996, 46.0% of Hispanic college graduates aged 25-64 years were employed in managerial and professional jobs, compared to 8.5% of Hispanic dropouts and 17.5% of Hispanic high school graduates. Almost one-half (48.0%) of Hispanic high school dropouts and approximately one-third (30.6%) of Hispanic high school graduates worked in the service industry, compared to only 5.0% of Hispanic college graduates. Over one-half (54.9%) of Hispanic dropouts and almost one-third (32.1%) of Hispanic high school graduates were employed as laborers/operators/fabricators, compared to only 2.0% of Hispanic college graduates.
- The median weekly earnings for Hispanics 16 years and older was lower among high school dropouts than college graduates. In 1996, Hispanic dropouts earned $278 per week, compared to $345 for Hispanic high school graduates and $656 per week for Hispanic college graduates.[15]
- High school dropouts are more likely than either high school or college graduates to live below the poverty level.[16] Moreover, within each category of educational attainment, a higher percentage of Hispanics and Blacks than Whites live below the poverty level. For example, in 1996, 33.9% of Hispanic and 39.5% of Black high school dropouts 25 years and older lived below the poverty level, compared to 21.8% of Whites. For college graduates 25 years old and older, the percentage of persons living below the poverty line declined; however, a higher percentage of Hispanics and Blacks than Whites were poor; 11.1% of Hispanic, 12.6% of Black, and 5.9% of White college graduates lived below the federal poverty level.

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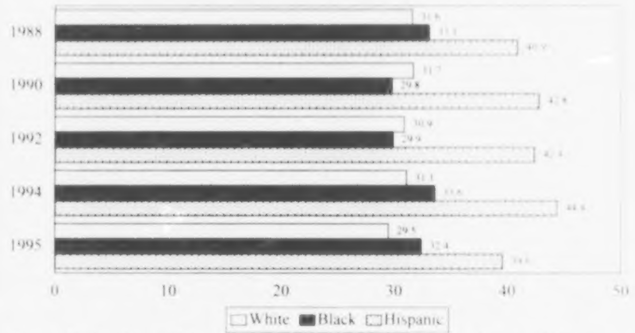
Figure 5.16

Undergradute Students Enrolled in College Part Time By Race/Ethnicity, 1988 - 1995



Source: *The Condition of Education 1997*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1997)

Hispanics have also traditionally have been more dependent than Whites upon financial aid and employment income to help finance a college education and are less likely to take out loans; during the 1992-93 school year, Hispanics (38.8%) and Blacks (47.2%) were more likely than Whites (32.1%) to receive grants; and Hispanics (14.5%) were less likely than Whites (20.0%) or Blacks (26.8%) to receive loans as financial aid.

Although Latinos are more likely than Whites to be poor, they are less likely than Whites to receive financial aid for their college tuition. Additionally, with rising college costs, more students seek part-time employment to supplement their income while they are attending school. Working while enrolled in college may help students avoid future educational debt, yet evidence suggests that this choice is negatively related to persistence and attainment outcomes.[22] Figure 5.15 demonstrates the hours per week that college students work. In 1988, 25.1% of White students worked 20 hours or more per week, compared to 18.6% of Black and 28.7% of Hispanics students. By 1993, 26.5% of Whites, 18.0% of Blacks, and 25.1% of Hispanics worked more than 20 hours per week while attending college. The figures for students working 35 hours or more while attending schools remained relatively constant between 1988 and 1993. In 1993, 5.5% of Whites, 3.8% of Blacks, and 6.3% of Hispanics worked more than 35 hours per week while going to school.

G. PART-TIME ENROLLMENT IN COLLEGE

In general, between 1988 and 1995, Hispanic undergraduates were more likely to be enrolled in college part-time than were their White and Black counterparts (see Figure 5.16); in 1988, 40.9% of Hispanics were part-time college students, compared to 31.6% of Whites and 33.1% of Blacks. In 1995, the percentage of Hispanic students enrolled part-time was seven to 10 percentage points higher than those of Blacks and Whites, respectively; 39.6% of Hispanics were enrolled in college part-time, compared to 32.4% of Blacks and 29.5% of Whites.

II. SUMMARY

Student achievement in elementary and secondary education directly affects their enrollment and progress in institutions of higher education. While more Hispanics are attending college in terms of absolute numbers than in previous years, as a proportion of the population they are less likely than Whites and Blacks to enroll in college. If they are enrolled in school, they are more likely to attend two-year institutions rather than four-year institutions. Hispanics are also less likely to have obtained a college degree. A bright spot, however, is that SAT test scores for Hispanics, as well as for Whites and Blacks, are improving. However Hispanics still score lower than Whites on this important test. Given that a college degree is fast becoming a prerequisite to high-paying, stable employment opportunities, increases in the percentage of Latino students attending and graduating from college as well as a rise in the proportion completing four-year degrees are needed.

Endnotes

1. College transition rates are defined by the U.S. Department of Education as the enrollment in college within one year of high school graduation.
2. "A Measure of What?" *Black Issues in Higher Education*, September 4, 1997, p. 20.
3. National Center for Education Statistics, *The Condition of Education 1997*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education, 1997.
4. Ibid.
5. Ibid.
6. Because of underreporting and nonreporting of racial/ethnic data, some figures are slightly lower than corresponding data in other tables.
7. By NCES' definition, first-professional degrees are degrees that signify both completion of the academic requirements for beginning practice in a given profession and a level of professional skill beyond that normally required for a bachelor's degree. First-professional degrees are awarded in the fields of dentistry, medicine, optometry, osteopathic medicine, pharmacy, podiatric medicine, veterinary medicine, chiropractic, law, and theological professions.
8. U.S. Bureau of the Census, "Educational Attainment Level by Ethnicity," Current Population Survey, March 1994.
9. U.S. Bureau of the Census, "Educational Attainment in the United States," Current Population Reports, P20-493. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, March 1996.
10. "Educational Attainment Level by Ethnicity," op. cit.
11. Ibid.
12. Prose literacy is defined as "the knowledge and skills needed to understand and use information from texts that include editorials, news stories, poems and fiction; for example, finding a piece of information in a newspaper article, interpreting instructions from a warranty, inferring a theme from a poem, or contrasting views expressed in an editorial." National Center for Education Statistics, *Adult Literacy in America*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education, 1993.
13. Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Labor Force Characteristics of Black and Hispanic Workers*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, September 1997.
14. Bureau of Labor Statistics, "Employed Persons by Occupation, Years of School, Sex, Race and Hispanic Origin," Unpublished table, 1996.
15. Ibid.
16. U.S. Census Bureau Home Page, "Years of School Completed by Selected Characteristics - Poverty Status in 1996 of Persons 25 Years Old or Over," Table 7, Current Population Survey, March 1996.
17. National Center for Education Statistics, *The Condition of Education 1996*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education, 1996.
18. Ibid.
19. Ibid.
20. Ibid.
21. Merisotis, Jamie P., and Ernest T. Freeman, "The Students' Crushing Debt," *The Washington Post*, November 3, 1997.
22. National Center for Education Statistics, "Working While in College," *Indicator of the Month*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education, 1996.

VI. Policy Implications

A. OVERVIEW

As the preceding chapters demonstrate, there is an enormous education gap between Hispanic students and other Americans by virtually every known measurement of educational opportunities and outcomes. Compared to non-Hispanics, Latino students are:

- More likely to enter school with significant disadvantages, including high poverty rates, low levels of parental education, and (for a high proportion of them) limited English proficiency
- Less likely to receive early childhood educational development through pre-school programs
- More likely to be retained in grade
- More likely to be placed in general education tracks, and less likely to be placed in programs for the gifted and talented
- Less likely to complete high school
- Less likely to pursue post-secondary education, particularly at four-year colleges
- Less likely to obtain a bachelor's degree or an advanced degree

Despite this distressing portrait, the National Council of La Raza believes that now, more than ever before, there are reasons for optimism. As this chapter will show:

- It is increasingly clear that improving Hispanic educational opportunities and outcomes is of vital interest to all Americans.
- There is a growing consensus among both researchers and practitioners about what needs to be done to improve the educational status of Latino students.
- A number of schools and communities have overcome many adverse factors and have succeeded in assuring quality education for their Hispanic children.

B. HISPANIC EDUCATIONAL EXCELLENCE: THE VALUE TO AMERICAN SOCIETY

The benefits to individual Latinos and the entire Hispanic community resulting from improvements in educational attainment are well-known. Previous NCLR research has shown that as many as one-third of poor Hispanics would be lifted out of poverty if Hispanic educational outcomes were equal to those of their White counterparts.[1] Similarly, researchers have shown that the "premium" for obtaining a bachelor's degree (over a high school degree) is worth an additional 75% more in lifetime earnings. Every Hispanic who now has a high school education would earn between $400,000 and $500,000 more over his or her lifetime if he/she had a bachelor's degree; the premium for a Latino with a professional degree is a remarkable $1.7 million.[2]

Perhaps less well known are the benefits to American society that would result from improvements in educational opportunity and outcomes for Hispanics. Closing the education gap between Hispanic and non-Hispanic Americans is critical to the future well-being of all Americans, on several levels. First, closing the education gap is essential to the nation's economic future. For example:

- **Maintaining a healthy, growing economy requires improvements in educational outcomes of Latinos.** Hispanics are becoming an increasingly important component of the labor force, accounting for 10% of workers and nearly one-third of net new entrants. Already, up to 80% of U.S. jobs require intellectual rather than manual skills,[3] and 52% are expected to require at least some college.[4] If the Latino population remains undereducated, the shortage of workers with needed math, computer, and other technological skills — already a problem for U.S. employers — will increase. Moreover, increasing educational attainment for Hispanics will result in substantial increases in worker productivity; one recent analysis shows that increasing the education level of workers by a single year results in productivity improvements of 8.5% in manufacturing industries and 12.7% in non-manufacturing industries.[5]

- **Improvements in Latino educational attainment are necessary to maintain the Social Security and Medicare systems, as well as other essential governmental functions.** As the "Baby Boom" generation enters retirement, it will be increasingly dependent on Latino workers to support Social Security, Medicare, and other social insurance systems. Once there were 17 workers for every Social Security recipient; today that ratio is 3:1 and by 2010 it will be about 2:1. The solvency of the nation's social insurance systems would be greatly enhanced by improving Hispanic educational attainment. For example, increasing the college completion rate of today's Hispanic 18-year-olds by as little as three percentage points (from 12% to 15%) alone would increase projected social insurance payments by $600 million. If this cohort's college completion rate were equal to that of White Americans (30%), social insurance payments would increase by about $6.6 billion. These estimates assume improvements only in a single cohort — 18-year-old Hispanics; were they applied to an entire generation, such as the birth cohort from 0 to age 18, the increase in federal tax revenues from equalizing Hispanic college completion rates with those of Whites would be a staggering $10 billion each year![6]

The economic benefits to all Americans resulting from increases in Hispanic educational attainment are clearly significant. Closing the education gap would also have equally significant, if less tangible, benefits to the nation's social fabric; for example:

- **Improving Latino educational outcomes promotes equality of opportunity.** Assuring equality of opportunity to all Americans is one of the nation's most precious values. The nation's commitment to promoting equal opportunity simply cannot be met as long as the education gap continues. Conversely, reducing disparities in educational outcomes will bring this country closer to its ideal as a land of opportunity for all, particularly as the nation experiences rapid and enormous demographic change.

- **Assuring a healthy, vigorous democracy requires improvements in Hispanic education.** An educated citizenry is required to maintain a free, open, and democratic society;

all Americans thus have an interest in assuring that Latinos — a large and rapidly growing proportion of the society — be fully educated. As the Twentieth Century Fund noted in its landmark study, *A Nation At Risk*:[7]

> For our country to function, citizens must be able to reach some common understandings on complex issues, often on short notice and on the basis of conflicting or incomplete evidence. Education helps form these common understandings.

For much of this century, Americans have maintained a remarkable consensus — based on economic self-interest, a commitment to equal opportunity, and the need for social cohesion in a democratic society — regarding the importance of a strong educational system. In recent years, due in part to changing demographics, that consensus has begun to weaken. As our nation enters the 21st Century, the need for a strong, effective, and inclusive educational system has never been greater.

C. CHARACTERISTICS OF SCHOOLS THAT WORK FOR LATINO STUDENTS

As noted in the Introduction to this report, NCLR began issuing this series of status reports at a time when Hispanics constituted slightly more than 5% of the U.S. population and were, for the first time, being counted in the U.S. Census and many other major studies. The Latino population was considered virtually "invisible" by most indicators, and the importance of the community's future contributions to the nation's population growth and economic vitality were known to only a few social scientists. There were few, if any, studies available that documented the policies and practices necessary to assure a high-quality education for Hispanic children. Even though a number of reforms coming out of the civil rights movement — affirmative action, school desegregation, bilingual education, and education finance reform — were just being implemented, already they were the subjects of significant, ideological, often emotional political controversies. The publication of *A Nation At Risk* crystallized growing public concern about the nation's educational system, and spawned the modern education reform movement, which itself stimulated a generation of new research, policy proposals, and concomitant political controversy. In that context, it was perhaps understandable that policy makers and education practitioners were unable to implement the kinds of policies and programs responsive to the needs of the nation's small but growing Hispanic population. None of these conditions, however, is true at the present time.

There is now a substantial, albeit incomplete, body of social science literature on Hispanic educational achievement; some of this research is based on empirical experience in classroom or community-based settings, some relies on survey data, and some includes both (see box on Selected Readings).

And although controversy continues over a host of educational policy questions, there is increasing consensus on a handful of fundamental policies and practices that are key to closing the education gap. For example, the principal attributes of "effective schools" have been known for nearly two decades; these attributes include:

- Strong leadership
- High expectations for students
- Clear, school-wide focus on basic skills

Selected Readings

The following list of publications includes books, research studies, and policy reports issued over the last decade on various aspects of educational issues of importance to Hispanics. While not purporting to be comprehensive, this listing demonstrates the existence of a major body of literature available to policy makers and practitioners interested in improving Hispanic educational attainment.

- August, Diane and Kenji Hakuta, eds., *Educating Language Minority Children.* Commission on Behavioral and Social Sciences and Education, National Research Council. Washington, DC: National Academy Press, 1998.
- De La Rosa, Denise and Carlyle Maw, *Hispanic Education: A Statistical Portrait, 1990.* Washington, DC: NCLR, October 1990.
- Fernandez, R. and W. Velez, *Who Stays? Who Leaves?: Findings from the ASPIRA five cities high school dropout study.* New York, NY: The ASPIRA Institute for Policy Research, 1989.
- First, Joan, John. B. Kellogg, Cheryl A. Almeida, and Richard Gray, Jr., *The Good Common School, Making the Vision Work for All Children.* Boston, MA: National Coalition of Advocates for Students, October 1991.
- Hurtado, A. and E. Garcia, *The Educational Achievement of Latinos: Barriers and Successes.* Santa Cruz, CA: University of California, 1994.
- Latino Commission on Educational Reform, *Making the Vision a Reality: A Latino Action Agenda for Educational Reform* (Final Report). New York, NY: New York Board of Education, 1994.
- Latino Commission on Educational Reform, *Toward a Vision for the Education of Latino Students: Community Voices, Student Voices.* New York, NY: New York Board of Education, 1992.
- Luxas, Tamara, Rosemary Henze, and Ruben Donato, "Promoting the Success of Latino Language-Minority Students: An Exploratory Study of Six High Schools," *Harvard Educational Review*, Vol. 60, No. 3, August 1990.
- Olsen, Laurie and Carol McDowell, *BRIDGES: Promising Programs For the Education of Immigrant Children.* San Francisco, CA: California Tomorrow, 1989.
- President's Advisory Commission on Educational Excellence for Hispanic Americans, *Our Nation on the Fault Line: Hispanic American Education.* Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, 1996.
- Romo, H.D. and T. Falbo, *Latino High School Graduation: Defying the Odds.* Austin, TX: University of Texas Press, 1996.
- Secada, Walter G., Rudolfo Chavez-Chavez, Eugene Garcia, Cipriano Munoz, Jeannie Oakes, Isaura Santiago-Santiago, Robert Slavin, *No More Excuses, The Final Report of the Hispanic Dropout Project.* Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, February 1998.
- *The Schools We Need Now: How Parents, Families and Communities Can Change Schools.* San Francisco, CA: California Tomorrow, July 1997.
- Sing, Rachel N. and Vivian Wai-Fun Le, *Delivering on the Promise: Positive Practices for Immigrant Students.* Boston, MA: National Coalition of Advocates for Students, June 1994.

- Safe, orderly learning environment
- Frequent assessment of student progress

More recently, other characteristics, including a focus on subjects beyond the basics, ongoing staff development, and strong home-school connections have been identified as important elements of an effective school. These attributes have been found to be essential for a variety of student populations, including language-minority children.[8] In addition, the U.S. Department of Education's High School Dropout Project identified five key characteristics of schools that effectively educate Hispanic students (see box on Hispanic Dropout Project).

Hispanic Dropout Project

Five Characteristics of Effective Schools

- ▲ First, these schools have very high academic and behavioral standards for their students.
- ▲ Second, they communicate those standards very clearly, and they provide access and support to students in meeting those standards — that is, they provide students with many opportunities to succeed in meeting these high standards.
- ▲ Third, schools that make a difference connect their students in meaningful ways to adults. In spite of their size, secondary schools can adopt strategies — such as a school within a school, a group of teachers accepting responsibility for the same students, everyone on staff agreeing to "adopt" some students, older students mentoring younger students — to increase the personal attention that students need to experience.
- ▲ Fourth, these schools connect their students to possible futures in college and the workforce.
- ▲ Fifth, they provide families with useful information about how their children are doing and about their futures. Rather than accepting the myth that parents do not care, good schools adopt the position that parents need information in order to make informed decisions that affect their children. Aspirations are not enough. For schools to make a difference, they must provide ways for students and their families to achieve those aspirations.

Researchers at the University of Texas have compiled a similar "short list" of actions the schools need to take to promote successful educational outcomes for Latino[9] students, as have the National Coalition of Advocates for Students,[10] researchers studying the Achievement for Latinos through the Academic Success (ALAS) project,[11] and numerous others. In sum, there is no shortage of research reports, program evaluations, practitioner's guides, or other material to help those truly interested in improving Hispanic educational attainment. As the Hispanic Dropout Project concluded:

> Ways to improve the schools that Hispanics attend and solutions to [the Hispanic dropout problem] are known; they should be implemented on a large scale. There are dozens of proven, replicable programs capable of increasing Hispanic students' achievement, increasing their high school completion, and increasing their college enrollment...*Only a lack of political leadership, will, and resources keeps the nation from solving the problem; there is no shortage of effective models.*[12]

While significant and contentious policy debates continue over a wide variety of issues, there appears to be a growing consensus that schools and education programs must incorporate three basic themes in order to succeed with Hispanic children; these themes include:

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- **High expectations**: For Latinos, there is perhaps no more important starting point than the simple premise that *every child can learn*. Successful outcomes in any field of endeavor are not possible unless the system is based on the belief that success is not just possible, but expected. Whether attributable to overt discrimination against or the acceptance of myths and stereotypes about Hispanic children, too many educators — teachers, counselors, and administrators — exhibit behaviors that undermine this simple premise.[13] Similarly, too many policy makers, advocates, parents, and even the children themselves fail to accept this fundamental premise. As a result, much of the educational system appears to be organized around a "self-fulfilling prophecy" which communicates the notion that Latino children cannot learn.

- **Accountability**: Along with the premise that all children are capable of learning, successful education of Latino students requires an acceptance of *responsibility* for achieving success. Everyone involved in the educational system — educators, policy makers, advocates, parents, and students — should both be held accountable and hold themselves accountable for educating *all* students. Instead, discussions of the Hispanic education gap too frequently degenerate into unconstructive "finger-pointing" exercises, in which the parties deny or rationalize their role and responsibility in the problem.

- **Family and Community**: While it is true that the educational system is insufficiently accountable for improving Hispanic educational attainment, it is also true that the *schools cannot solve the problem alone*. There is an extensive body of research documenting the links between educational outcomes and family income, parental education levels, and other factors;[14] Latino children are disproportionately likely to negatively experience each of these determinants of educational success. While the educational system does have a role in addressing some of these factors, schools alone cannot reduce or fully compensate for high poverty or low parental education levels.

Expert observers in the field stress, moreover, that there is no single "silver bullet" which, if implemented, will magically improve Latino educational outcomes overnight. In fact, virtually all emphasize the importance of comprehensive, mutually-reinforcing or synchronized policies and programs in any strategy designed to promote increased Latino student achievement. In the section that follows, some "success stories" which embody these themes, along with some notable failures, are identified.

D. SCHOOLS AND PROGRAMS THAT WORK, AND SOME THAT DON'T

Some researchers have decried the "shocking...rarity of outstanding schools and programs for Hispanic students,"[14] and the data cited in this report strongly suggest that the vast majority of school systems are failing to educate Latino children effectively. However, both the scholarly literature and the popular press have uncovered numerous examples of school districts, schools, school-based programs, and community-based programs that succeed in educating Hispanic students well. Nevertheless, there are also far too many examples of school systems that fail to educate their

Public Schools That Work for Latino Students

In the **Calexico Unified School District**, on the Mexican border in California's Imperial Valley, about 80% of the students are English Language Learners (ELLs), 30% are children of migrant and seasonal farmworkers, and the average family earns less than $12,000. The system was one of the first to implement a full bilingual curriculum in each of its schools in the 1970s, has established aggressive parental involvement programs, and, perhaps most importantly, has created what one observer called a "culture of learning." All students must pass an English proficiency test and complete a senior project to graduate. The dropout rate has been less than half of the national average for Hispanics and about half of the statewide average for all students. More than 80% of the school system's graduates go on to higher education, more than twice the national average for Latino and non-Latino high school graduates.[16]

The **Central Park East School** in East Harlem, New York, is one of the nation's best-known public "choice" schools. The majority of the school's students are low-income; about three-quarters come from families who earn at or barely-above poverty-level incomes. However, the school is racially diverse; about 45% of its students are African American, while another 30% are Hispanic, principally of Puerto Rican and Dominican origins. Despite serious resistance from the school bureaucracy and some community opposition owing to the school's acceptance of significant numbers of (largely White) students from outside the neighborhood, its results have been dramatic: school attendance far above the city average, a negligible dropout rate in a city where minority dropout rates exceed 50%, and high standardized test scores.[17]

Community School District Six, located in upper Manhattan in New York City, contains a large population of English language learners (ELLs). Of the total enrollment of over 29,000 students, 48.2% are ELLs, the highest proportion among all school districts in New York State. In addition, 98.9% of the district's students are from low-income families. Despite these demographic challenges, District Six has built an educational environment that promotes higher standards of excellence for the entire learning community. It is at the forefront of innovative technology initiatives, with the largest computer laptop program in the state; it also operates an extensive parent education initiative that includes basic literacy, career development, computer training, GED and bachelor's degree, and parent leadership programs. During the last 10 years, the district's reading and math scores have increased significantly. In reading, the district has gone from being ranked 32nd to 19th in the city; in mathematics, the district's rank has increased from 32nd to 13th. The district also has the city's second highest Spanish language reading scores.[18]

The **Ysleta Independent School District** (Ysleta ISD) in El Paso, Texas, includes 47,000 students, 75% of whom come from below-poverty-level families; 85% of the student body is Hispanic, and about 40% of all students are predominantly Spanish-speaking. Ysleta ISD operates one of the most comprehensive bilingual education programs in the country, designed to assure that *all* students will graduate from high school fluently bilingual and fully prepared to enter a four-year college. Prior to adopting this program, between 50-60% of Ysleta students passed Texas' standardized reading, mathematics, and writing tests. In 1997, 85% of the district's students passed the reading exam, 81% passed the mathematics exam, and 86% passed the writing exam; these scores surpass those of virtually all urban school districts in the United States.[19]

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Hispanic children effectively. In this section, a few programs in each category are briefly described.

Four school systems that have been widely touted both by experts and in the popular press as success stories are the Calexico Unified School District in California, the Ysleta Independent School District in El Paso, Texas, the Community School District Six and the Central Park East School in New York (see box on Schools That Work). Despite serving largely low-income populations, these schools regularly exceed statewide averages for Hispanics – and in many cases for all students – in terms of graduation rates, test scores, and percentages of graduates who go on to college.

These four school systems are located in diverse areas, two in quintessentially urban New York, one in California's highly agricultural Imperial Valley, and the other in urban El Paso, along the Texas-Mexico border. They are structured very differently, serve divergent populations, and have very little in common in terms of curriculum or teaching philosophy. What they do have in common are strong leadership, high expectations, an acceptance of responsibility for teaching all students, and effective parent involvement programs.

Where the public schools are not effectively educating all Latino students, alternative schools, charter schools, tutoring and mentoring programs, and after-school or weekend enrichment programs can help fill the gap. Often run by local Hispanic community-based organizations, these programs frequently must overcome resistance by local and state school bureaucracies, chronic funding problems, and the challenge of educating student populations who have been rejected by the public schools. Despite these challenges, many of these programs have remarkable records.

Alternative Programs that Work for Hispanic Students[20]

At the **Guadalupe Center, Inc.**, in Kansas City, Missouri, Latino children get a strong educational start through a bilingual preschool, a bilingual elementary school run by this community-based organization for the Catholic diocese, an alternative high school (Alta Vista), and an after-school enrichment program, Academia Del Pueblo, which uses an innovative curriculum to strengthen basic skills and develop higher-order reasoning skills. Students participating in the Academia Del Pueblo have seen their Iowa Basic Skills Test scores in math and science increase by at least one grade level. Students at the Alta Vista Alternative School achieve an average daily attendance of 90%, among the best in the Kansas City area. The dropout rate for students at Alta Vista is just 13%, as opposed to a district-wide Latino dropout rate of 70%. In 1997, Alta Vista graduated more Latino students than any other high school in Kansas City, Missouri.

In Houston, the **Association for the Advancement of Mexican Americans** has for 22 years operated the **George I. Sanchez High School**, one of the oldest community-based alternative schools in the country (now a charter school under Texas law). Established originally as an alternative school to serve Hispanic dropouts and "push-outs" – students with behavioral problems or otherwise not wanted in the regular public school system – the George I. Sanchez High School has experienced enormous success. It consistently graduates about 90% of its students in a city where the Latino dropout rate is about 50%, its students' test scores are competitive with comparable state averages, and many of its graduates go on to college.

Two of these programs, the Guadalupe Center, Inc. in Kansas City, and the George I. Sanchez High School in Houston, have established long-term, successful track records in teaching Latino children (see box on Alternative Programs). Like the successful public schools noted above, these programs share several essential characteristics, despite the fact that one operates in a Midwestern city where Latinos are a small minority, while the other is located in a Southwestern city where Hispanics are by far the largest ethnic minority. Both are characterized by powerful, committed leadership, a commitment to high standards – demonstrating an expectation that their children can learn

Schools that Fail Latino Students

In the **Denver Public Schools** (DPS), the number of Latino students grew by 21% between 1992 to 1996, to nearly half of the school population. Already under a court-ordered consent decree to improve its services to language-minority students, in July 1997 the DPS was found by the U.S. Department of Education's Office of Civil Rights (ED/OCR) to be in substantial noncompliance with its obligation under the civil rights laws to serve limited-English-proficient students equitably.[21] According to a report by the District's Hispanic Education Advisory Council, DPS' Latino graduation rate was 45.9%, compared to the overall DPS rate of 60.6%, a statewide average for Latinos of 59.4%, and the overall rate for the state of 77.6%. Similarly, achievement test scores of Hispanics in DPS lag behind those of their non-Latino peers within the District, and their Latino peers statewide, and these gaps are widening.[22] Despite these data, the DPS Superintendent has indicated his confidence that the District, "...is moving in the right direction"[23] and has indicated that "we will resist, and continue to resist" remedies proposed by the ED/OCR.[24] The Superintendent has refused to negotiate with Hispanic parent groups or Latino educators who brought the original lawsuit leading to the consent decree.

In the **Washington, D.C. Public Schools** (DCPS), the existence of a significant Hispanic population is a relatively new phenomenon; large-scale Central American migration to the city took place in the early 1980s. A 1991 report by the D.C. Latino Civil Rights Task Force found, based in part on a finding by the U.S. Department of Education's Office of Civil Rights (ED/OCR), that "...the civil rights of students have been consistently violated" by DCPS.[25] A subsequent report by the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights found that: "In most schools, LEP (limited-English-proficient) students have unequal access to many educational programs...Many Latino parents are estranged from District schools...DCPS appears to have been in noncompliance with Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964..."[26]

Already plagued by a variety of funding and performance problems, DCPS has never fully implemented a comprehensive policy to address the needs of language-minority students and has no effective system for tracking their status. Nevertheless, data that are available strongly suggest that Latino and language-minority student completion rates and test scores are well below the District average, which itself ranks well below the national average.[27] Pursuant to a conciliation agreement between DCPS and the Latino Civil Rights Task Force resulting from a discrimination complaint filed with ED/OCR, in January 1997 an Advisory Committee on Diversity was established to develop and oversee DCPS' progress in improving services to Latino and language-minority students; in March 1998, all of the non-governmental members of the Advisory Committee resigned in protest as a result of the District's failure to make a good faith effort to improve such services.[28]

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– and aggressive parental and community involvement efforts; as organizations based in their local communities, they are also directly accountable to neighborhood residents.

Unfortunately, many schools fail to educate Hispanic students (see box on Schools That Fail). The context of Latino students in the two school districts identified above could hardly be more different. In the case of Denver, which is located in the territory acquired by the U.S. after the Mexican War, Hispanics have lived in the area since before the existence of what is now the United States. Until recently, the Latino population in the city was overwhelmingly native-born, and many Hispanic families trace their roots in the area back a dozen generations or more; most of these Latino families have achieved middle- or even upper-class status. Once a hotbed of activism in the Hispanic civil rights movement, the area has experienced a recent influx of new immigrants, mainly of Mexican origin.[29]

In the case of the District of Columbia, by contrast, the Latino population was so small as to be virtually unmeasurable until large numbers of Central American refugees, displaced by the outbreak of civil war in their home countries, began arriving in the city in the early 1980s. They arrived in a city with little or no history of Latino activism – although even then several Hispanic community-based organizations had established impressive track records as service providers – and their initial focus naturally centered around immigration-related concerns. Beginning with the Mount Pleasant disturbances in 1991,* and as most have achieved legal status, the community's focus on education issues has increased.

However, the two school districts' responses to their growing Hispanic populations have been remarkably similar. Initially, they ignored or denied the existence of a problem. Under pressure from advocacy groups, the courts, and civil rights enforcement agencies, they agreed, albeit reluctantly and grudgingly, to reforms which were poorly implemented. Faced again with the threat of enforcement actions, they hint that Latino students cannot be expected to perform at high levels, refuse to acknowledge responsibility for reversing the situation, fail to engage parents or community leaders in constructive dialogue, and publicly and openly resist remedies proposed by civil rights enforcement agencies and community groups. In many respects, they exemplify the failure to demonstrate the behaviors – communicating high expectations, accepting responsibility, and reaching out to family and community – that the consensus of scholars and practitioners agrees is necessary to educate Hispanic students effectively.

Taken together, these examples demonstrate vividly Vice President Al Gore's observation that the explanation for the growing education gap "…is not that Latino kids are failing in school, it is that the schools are failing Latino students."[29] The successful schools and programs tend to belie many myths and stereotypes about Latino education. The fact that very low-income schools in Calexico, El Paso, Upper Manhattan, and East Harlem are successful belies the notion that schools are inherently incapable of overcoming the socioeconomic disadvantages with which many Hispanic children enter school. The fact that the Calexico USD, Ysleta ISD, and the Guadalupe Center's programs have obtained impressive results using bilingual education tends to undermine the assumption that such programs "don't work." The fact that both the George I. Sanchez School's and the Guadalupe Center's community-based approaches have outperformed that of the public schools in their states contradicts the myth that the Hispanic community does not value education. The fact that Latino children attending such diverse entities as the Central Park East "public choice" school and the George I. Sanchez alternative/charter school excel flies in the face of arguments that a single "one size fits all" approach is needed to address the Hispanic education gap.

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* For many years, the D.C. Latino community perceived that it was subject to disparate treatment by law enforcement officers. In 1991, one perceived case of law enforcement abuse led to two days of community disturbances in the District's predominantly Hispanic Mount Pleasant and Adams Morgan neighborhoods. Out of these disturbances, a number of new Latino institutions arose, including several that now maintain a major focus on education issues.

The examples of school failure reinforce one of the central conclusions of the Hispanic Dropout Project that:

> There is no reason to expect that this unacceptably high rate of dropping out among Hispanic students will diminish on its own without major changes in our school and society.[31]

E. THE FEDERAL ROLE

It is increasingly fashionable to suggest, particularly in an era of federal budget constraint and the "devolution" of a variety of responsibilities to the states, that the federal government has little or no role in shaping education policy and practice. It is true that state and local funding accounts for about 93% of all public funding for education and that, by law and/or practice, the vast majority of organizational, administrative, pedagogical, and program decisions affecting schools are made by local elected and appointed officials.

It is also true, however, that the federal government has a unique role, a special responsibility, and considerable influence that can and should be used to promote improved educational opportunities for Latinos and other disadvantaged groups. For example:

- **The federal government is responsible for enforcement of laws promoting equal educational opportunity, a particular concern for Latino students**. Given that Hispanic students are the most segregated in the nation, experience disproportionately high rates of disciplinary action, are steered into non-academic tracks in excessive numbers, and face many other forms of educational discrimination, the need for a vigorous civil rights enforcement effort has never been greater. Only the federal government has the authority and capacity to enforce equal educational opportunity guarantees found in the Constitution and the civil rights laws on behalf of Hispanic children.

- **Federal funding plays a highly significant role in the school districts in which Latino students are concentrated**. While the federal government accounts for only 6-7% of all education funding, it provides nearly 12% of revenues in public school districts that are at least 50% Hispanic, nearly 8% in districts that are 10-49% Hispanic, and 5.5% in the districts that are less than 10% Hispanic.[32] Moreover, federal funding supports important research, development of innovative programs, and evaluations of various educational techniques and models, and provides technical assistance to school districts; the relative significance of these efforts is clearly greater in the predominantly low-income school districts in which Hispanic students are concentrated.

- **The federal government oversees or implements a wide variety of programs designed to address or ameliorate inequities in education.** Head Start and other early childhood development programs are designed to reduce disparities faced by low-income children before they start school. Title I compensatory education funds help equalize disparities in school financing systems, and encourage greater focus on the educational needs of low-income children. The so-called TRIO programs provide pre-college outreach and preparation to low-income high school students, and offer a variety of supportive services to such students already in college to encourage them to complete school. Programs like the Job Corps seek to provide constructive in-

Hispanic Participation in Selected Federal Education and Education-Related Programs[33]

Although Hispanics constitute about 10% of the total U.S. population, due to the community's low median age and high poverty rates about 30% of all poor children in the nation are Latino. Because the programs listed below are means-tested, i.e., consider income and/or poverty status as the principal criterion in determining eligibility, one would expect that Hispanics would constitute about 30% of program participants.

Head Start: Head Start is the nation's largest early childhood development initiative. Hispanics constitute only about 15% of all non-migrant Head Start participants on the U.S. mainland, about one-half of the expected participation rate.

Title I: Title I (formerly Chapter One) provides funding to school districts to support a wide variety of supplementary education services to low-income K-12 students. Until reforms were enacted as part of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act amendments in 1994, limited-English-proficient (LEP) students, the majority of whom are Latino, were virtually excluded from participation in most Title I programs.

TRIO Programs: TRIO supports early intervention services to encourage disadvantaged high school students to attend college, and support services to disadvantaged college students to help them complete their post-secondary education. Latinos constitute only 16% of U.S. mainland TRIO participants, about one-half of the expected participation rate.

School-to-Work/Apprenticeship Programs: School-to-Work and apprenticeship programs assist non-college-bound youth to acquire skills and experience needed to succeed in technical occupations. Only about 7% of newly-registered apprentices are Latino, a small fraction of the expected 30% participation rate.

Job Corps: The Job Corps program is the nation's largest residential education and training program for disadvantaged youth. About 16% of Job Corps participants are Latino, about half of the expected participation rate.

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terventions in the lives of high-risk youth, while federally-supported loans and grants encourage college enrollment and completion for all students.

- **Federal research, funding, and civil rights enforcement are particularly important for English language learners, the majority of whom are Latino.** Few would deny, and the Supreme Court has found, that children who lack full English proficiency are entitled to some form of special language instruction as a means of ensuring equal access to education. And regardless of one's views on bilingual education, few would argue that a system which permits one-quarter of the nation's language-minority children to receive *no special language services at all* is untenable. Moreover, there is substantial evidence that English language learners (ELL) are subject to extremely high levels of unlawful discrimination; one analysis of civil rights monitoring reports found that 62% of school districts in California had violations of requirements for ELL students, a higher rate of noncompliance than for any other group. Fully one-third of the school districts monitored were found to deny ELL students even "minimum access to the curriculum."[34]

Viewed through this lens, the federal government's record of promoting equal educational opportunity and educational excellence for Hispanic students is mixed, at best. On the one hand, the data demonstrate that Latinos are neither equitably nor effectively served by the most important federal education programs (see box on Hispanic Participation). Moreover, until very recently and with very few exceptions, not only were the educational condition and needs of Hispanics virtually ignored by the federal government, there has been a marked resistance even to acknowledging the existence of a problem with federal policy.

On the other hand, there is some reason to believe that the historical neglect of the educational interests of Latino children by the federal government may be changing. In 1990, President Bush issued an Executive Order, re-issued by President Clinton in 1994, establishing a White House Initiative on Educational Excellence for Hispanic Americans. The Initiative, which is implemented by a small staff and a Presidential Advisory Commission, is charged with making recommendations to improve the responsiveness of federal education programs to Latino children. The Commission issued reports in 1992 and 1996 calling for increased federal involvement in improving educational opportunities for Latinos.

As a result of legislation sponsored by Senator Jeff Bingaman (D-NM), in 1995 the Department of Education established the Hispanic Dropout Project, which included an advisory group of scholars charged with making recommendations to reduce the Latino dropout rate; the project issued its final report, *No More Excuses*, in February 1998. Beginning with his announcement of the President's Initiative on Race in June 1997, and in a series of speeches since then, President Clinton has stressed the importance of improving educational opportunities for Latinos.

Perhaps most significantly, in response to the recommendations of the Hispanic Dropout Project and the recommendations of an informal interagency group focused on Hispanic Poverty, in February 1998 Vice President Gore and Education Secretary Richard Riley announced a historic Hispanic Education Initiative, the first-ever formal budget proposal specifically targeted to improving the educational status of Hispanic children. The Initiative includes a number of proposals requesting funding increases for several federal programs that serve Latino students (see box on Hispanic Education Initiative). The final budget approved by Congress and the President includes substantial funding increases for each program in the Hispanic Education Initiative. However, in reauthorizing the Higher Education Act, the 105th Congress did not include changes to the TRIO program to permit greater participation by Hispanic children, and other necessary reforms.

NCLR and other Latino advocates have pressed for more rapid reforms. Nevertheless, to the extent that improving educational outcomes of Latinos requires high expectations, improved accountability, and greater attention to family and community issues, the heightened focus on the issue by federal policy makers is welcome. It remains to be seen whether this increased attention is accompanied by significant policy and program reforms.

F. The Latino Community's Role: A Call to Action

1. Beyond Access: A Broader Policy and Advocacy Agenda

The research cited in this report confirms the common-sense notion that improving Latino educational achievement is the single most important way to increase economic opportunity for Hispanic Americans. And while it is true that virtually every national Latino organization has some type of education program,[35] it is also true that the current level

Hispanic Education Initiative

On February 2, 1998, Vice President Albert Gore and Secretary of Education Richard Riley unveiled the Administration's Hispanic Education Initiative, a series of FY 1999 budget requests and off-budget legislative and administrative proposals designed to improve educational opportunities for Hispanic Americans. Some of the major elements of the Initiative are listed below.

▲ **Title I**: Request $400 million increase (from $7.4 billion to $7.8 billion), in part to help school districts serve increased numbers of Latino students who qualify for services based on 1994 reforms.

▲ **Bilingual Education**: Request $33 million increase (from $199 million to $232 million), focused on helping LEP children achieve higher standards, increasing teacher training, and supporting research.

▲ **Migrant Education**: Request $50 million increase (from $305 million to $355 million) to improve educational services to migrant farmworker children.

▲ **Adult Education Act**: Request an additional $33 million (from $361 million to $394 million) designed in part to develop "best practices" and model programs for English language training for LEP adults.

▲ **Hispanic Serving Institutions**: Request $16 million increase (from $12 million to $28 million) to support Hispanic Serving Institutions of higher education to serve the growing Hispanic college population more effectively.

▲ **TRIO Programs**: Request an additional $53 million principally to support early outreach and college preparation interventions for high school students.

of work by such organizations has not produced measurable, tangible improvements in Hispanic educational outcomes in recent years.

In addition, for nearly three decades, the principal and almost exclusive focus of Latino education advocates has been the question of "access," broadly defined to include: integrating *de facto* segregated schools, principally in the Southwest; assuring appropriate services, including bilingual education, for language-minority children; promoting more equitable school finance systems; eliminating a range of both overt and subtle discriminatory practices, including "tracking" and inappropriate counseling systems; misclassification of disproportionate numbers of Latino children as developmentally disabled; promoting more equitable distribution of federal educational assistance; and so forth. Nothing in this report suggests that this "access" or equity agenda is outdated; indeed, in many respects greater attention is needed on a number of these and other civil rights-related education issues.

However, new challenges have emerged. The modern school reform movement has raised a series of important issues, grouped around an "excellence" agenda, broadly defined to include: a variety of school governance and management issues; high standards and "high stakes" assessments for students and teachers; school "choice," vouchers, and charter schools; and numerous other issues.

Moreover, scientific and technological advances raise new questions for Hispanic advocates and scholars. For example, recent research on the development of infants' cognitive skills strongly suggests the need for more work on early childhood programs from a Latino perspective. The conditions under which new communications technology can be maximized to promote achievement of Hispanic students has not been fully analyzed. And while substantial research has been carried out on how to help Latino children learn to read, there is a paucity of work on improving Hispanic students' math-science skills, a potentially serious problem in an increasingly technological society.

Generally, Latino scholars and advocates have not engaged these issues in great depth, except for assessing their civil rights implications. While such assessments are clearly important and necessary, often they are incomplete; frequently they address the potential negative impacts of proposed reforms from an "equity perspective" without fully analyzing the potential positive impacts from an "excellence perspective." For example, analyses of the civil rights implications of "high stakes" standardized testing regimes show that such systems are likely to have negative, disparate impacts on Latinos and other minorities; the question they generally do not address is how to design an assessment system that, on balance, will improve Latino achievement. Similarly, on the question of early childhood education, Latino advocates appropriately focus on reversing the chronic underrepresentation of Hispanic children in Head Start and other programs; relatively less attention has been given to qualitative questions regarding how to promote more effectively early learning and cognitive development of all Latino children.

The rhetorical arguments used to advance Latino education policy agendas may also require reassessment. Although this report unequivocally demonstrates that all Americans have a vital stake in closing the Hispanic education gap, the "rights-based" language often used by Latino advocates often may obscure or confuse this central point. Moreover, the tendency to focus exclusively on documenting the scope of educational disparities between Hispanics and non-Hispanics may inadvertently contribute to a public perception that the problem is so serious that it cannot be overcome. In this context, the tone of some advocates arguably may undermine the widespread establishment of the very types of high academic expectations for Latino students that the research suggests are essential for improving educational achievement. Similarly, it might be argued that the typical focus on laying out policies and programs that need to be adopted to address the problem may give some readers the misimpression that the Hispanic community is not taking responsibility for producing solutions, but instead is relying on others to do so. In order to address these issues, NCLR believes that:

- **National Hispanic organizations and advocates should make improvements in Latino educational achievement their single top program priority.** Given that the importance and value of such improvements are unquestioned, it would seem axiomatic that the goal of assuring improvements in Hispanic educational outcomes should be reflected in the program priorities of the community's major institutions.

- **Latino organizations and advocates should broaden their policy agendas to include the full range of issues affecting the achievement of Hispanic children**. Hispanic advocates, in conjunction with scholars and practitioners, should rigorously and methodically assess, in as much detail as possible, issues such as standards and assessments, choice, vouchers, charter schools, early childhood development, the use of new technology in education, and so on. Such a broadened agenda need not result in a diminished commitment to principles of equity; in this context, the emerging Latino "excellence" agenda should augment, and not replace, the traditional "access" agenda.

- **Hispanic organizations and advocates should reassess the tone, as well as the content, of their policy agendas**. Latino organizations and advocates need more effectively to articulate why improving Hispanic educational outcomes is a vital issue for *all* Americans, explain how such improvements are achievable, and demonstrate that the Latino community itself is doing its share toward this common goal.

2. ADDRESSING DEVOLUTION: STATE-LOCAL SCHOOL REFORM

Traditionally, Latino organizations and advocates carrying out public policy advocacy on education issues have concentrated their efforts at the federal level. Notwithstanding the importance of federal education policy, particularly in advancing an equity or access agenda, the vast majority of the decision-making power over, and resources to support, the U.S. educational system is controlled by state and local governments. However, with very few exceptions, neither national Hispanic organizations, nor their local offices, chapters, or affiliates, have the capacity to participate effectively in educational policy decisions at the state or local level on a consistent basis.

Increasingly, however, Latino community-based organizations are playing active roles in state and local educational policy debates,[36] albeit on a rather limited scale. In order to address this issue, NCLR believes that:

- **Latino organizations need to assure the establishment of a strong, sustained, and**

consistent policy advocacy presence in state-local education debates. Where efforts exist, they should be supported. In cases where a Hispanic perspective on school reform is absent, new initiatives are required. Latino organizations at the national, state, and local level, working in coalition with each other and non-Hispanic institutions involved in education reform, need to establish nothing less than a state-local public policy "infrastructure" capable of participating effectively in key education policy debates.

3. Implementing Alternatives: Community-Based Programs

Even the most effective school reform efforts will not succeed in all states, in all school systems within these states, or at every campus within each local school system. In addition, reform efforts take time; in the interim, hundreds of thousands of Latinos will leave school each year without the skills needed to succeed in the labor market. Because Hispanics have few community institutions – there is, for example, no system of historically Latino colleges and universities, nor is there a system of Hispanic churches – the local community-based organization (CBO) is often the only institution capable of effectively reaching Hispanic students and adults who seek educational services.

Fortunately, Hispanic CBOs have demonstrated an ability to offer an enormously wide array of educational services. Such groups provide English language training, citizenship, and literacy courses for adults and out-of-school youth; basic skills training and GED certificates for adults; summer programs, after-school, or weekend enrichment and basic skills classes to youth to supplement regular education coursework; mentoring and tutoring programs for at-risk and disadvantaged youth; college preparatory assistance; Head Start and other early childhood development efforts for preschool children; and many other programs. Some, including those cited in this report and many others, even operate fully-accredited alternative or charter schools.

Nevertheless, it is clear that the demand for such services far exceeds the supply. English, citizenship, and literacy courses are chronically oversubscribed; typical waiting lists for course openings are measured in months, not days or weeks. Despite the fact that Hispanics already are substantially overrepresented as charter school students, the demand for new Latino charter schools still appears to be growing; within the NCLR affiliate network alone, the number of new or emerging charter schools has doubled in the past two years. Similar shortages of other community-based education courses and services are widely reported.

In addition, there are questions about the ability of under-funded CBOs to deliver high-quality educational services on a consistent basis. While this does not appear to be an issue with programs like those operated by well-established groups such as those cited in this report, there are increasing numbers of reports about the effectiveness of some community-based programs, particularly with respect to charter schools.[37] A related concern involves the often-fragmented nature of this community-based "informal school system." In many communities, one agency operates a Head Start program, a second agency provides after-school enrichment programs for elementary students, a third agency offers college preparatory services for high school students, a fourth agency provides tutors for middle and high school students, a fifth agency provides English language training, literacy, and GED programs for adults and out-of-school youth, etc. While not inherently incapable of operating in a coordinated fashion, given inevitable tensions over issues such as competition for resources and visibility, effective collaborations that include referral networks, comprehensive assessments and curriculum offerings, and joint programs are rare. In order to address these concerns, NCLR believes that:

- **Hispanic community-based educational agencies should accept the responsibility to achieve, and be prepared to be accountable to the community for meeting the highest possible quality standards.** It is insufficient, albeit understandable, for such agencies to point out that they meet or exceed the quality of services provided by the often poorly-performing public schools. Given the data cited in this report, it is essential that Latino institutions hold themselves to the high quality standards required to produce students capable of succeeding in an increasingly competitive and demanding labor market.
- **Latino community groups should seek to establish an expanded, "seamless" alternative educational infrastructure**. Given high school failure rates at every point in the educational "pipeline" in every region of the country, there is an urgent need for a massive expansion – consistent with the highest quality standards – in the community-based educational infrastructure serving Hispanic students, out-of-school youth, and adults. In addition, much more attention needs to be given to establishing matriculation arrangements, referral networks, and collaborative initiatives between and among the various agencies providing educational services to the Latino community.
- **Every Latino community-based organization can and should support effective education programs.** Even those agencies that have missions outside of the education field or face other limitations can, at a minimum: assure timely and accurate dissemination of information about and referrals to organizations that do provide effective education services; provide in-kind support, e.g., free or low-cost space to groups from other neighborhoods that offer needed education programs; and participate in coalition advocacy and community organizing work in support of effective school reforms for Latino children.

4. Advancing the State of the Art: The Scholar's Challenge

Latino scholars and other researchers specializing in education issues have helped document in great detail the size, scope, and consequences of the "education gap" between Hispanics and the rest of American society. Relatively less scholarly attention has been given to the development of policy- or program-relevant research focused on specific initiatives that have been demonstrated to be successful in reducing the education gap. For example, there are several competing and widely-cited groups of studies purporting to "prove" that certain school choice experiments have or have not increased participating children's test scores; in fact, for most Latino advocates and practitioners, the more policy-relevant question is: *under what conditions* do school choice programs produce improvements in Hispanic educational achievement?

Similarly, there is a large body of literature regarding the relative effectiveness of various early childhood development programs in promoting

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cognitive development of preschool children; however, few of these studies focus on Hispanic preschool participants. Although there are, as noted above, numerous programs and schools that have proven to be effective in raising Hispanic educational achievement, there is a noticeable absence in the literature of the types of formal evaluations of these successful programs that often are needed to promote widespread replication. Even where such data exist, they tend not to be widely available in user-friendly formats, and technical assistance to schools and community-based programs seeking to implement such "exemplary practices" are scarce. In order to address these issues, NCLR believes that:

- **Latino scholars should take the lead in filling existing gaps in knowledge needed to ensure improvements in Hispanic educational achievement.** Formal, rigorous evaluations of alternative approaches to early childhood education, the teaching of math-science skills, school choice programs, and parental involvement programs would be a good place to start.
- **Researchers specializing in Hispanic education issues should more effectively assist policy makers, advocates, and practitioners to translate scholarly findings into concrete and practical policies and programs.** In addition to producing and disseminating research findings in user-friendly formats, more effective collaborations among scholars, advocates, and practitioners should be established. Such collaborations could include joint efforts between researchers and advocates to refine education policy agendas, from a Latino perspective. In addition, university faculty members could "adopt" emerging Hispanic charter schools, helping them to use the latest curricula, instructional techniques, and learning materials.

5. A Role for Everyone: Students, Parents, and Individuals

Given the enormous scope of the education gap, and the severe consequences for the Latino community and American society of the continuing undereducation of Hispanic children, the entire community needs to become more involved in addressing the issue. Latino students face formidable barriers to educational achievement, some beginning even before they reach school age, many of them firmly entrenched in the educational system. But the majority of Hispanic children who face many of these barriers *do succeed* in graduating from high school; many overcome long odds and complete college and graduate school.

Similarly, it is true that many Hispanic parents face extraordinary obstacles to participating more effectively in their children's education, including their own low levels of educational attainment, high poverty rates, language and literacy barriers, and an often indifferent or hostile educational system. But the majority of these parents themselves have overcome these and other serious barriers, including labor market discrimination, to be able to provide for and nurture their families. And while even the most successful Latinos, including college students, professionals, and business people, often feel isolated from or powerless to intervene in the educational process, many of their peers are tutoring children, coaching Little League teams, volunteering with community organizations, and contributing to school reform advocacy efforts in their local communities. In order to strengthen family/community support and participation, NCLR believes that:

- **Hispanic parents should play more proactive roles in promoting their children's educational achievement.** The persistence, tenacity, and work ethic that have enabled generations of Latinos to have the highest labor force participation rates of any group and disproportionately high levels of entrepreneurialism can and should be focused on educational achievement. Parents denied access to school officials and traditional parental involvement groups can help organize those similarly situated to work together to stimulate reform. Those parents with low levels of literacy or English proficiency can call on family members, friends, libraries, and community organizations for help, while they themselves attend English and literacy courses.
- **Every individual can *do something* to encourage improvements in Latino educational outcomes.** Whether it's writing a letter to a policy-maker, serving on the board of a community organization, starting a parent advocacy organization, or just tutoring one child for an hour on weekends, every Hispanic American who cares about the future of his or her country and community can contribute to improving Latino educational achievement.
- **Hispanic students should take responsibility for achieving excellence in education.** After all, the challenge of promoting high expectations and strong accountability for achievement ultimately resides with students themselves.

G. ACCEPTING RESPONSIBILITY, PROMOTING ACCOUNTABILITY, ENGAGING COMMUNITY

Research and policy reports typically conclude with a set of policy and program recommendations. Such recommendations almost invariably are designed by the report's authors to be implemented by some other set of individuals or institutions – such as various levels of government, foundations, the press, and so forth. This report takes the opposite approach. Instead of suggesting, even by implication, that improving Hispanic educational attainment is principally an objective for others to address, the National Council of La Raza believes that the Latino community must articulate and adopt the highest possible educational expectations for its children, accept responsibility for improving educational achievement, and engage every segment of the community to do everything it can to address the issue. If the nation's policy-makers, teachers, and administrators should be held accountable for improving educational opportunities for Hispanic Americans – and they should be – Latino advocates have a concomitant responsibility to lay out in clear terms the policy decisions and program designs that would best promote such opportunities.

To the extent that most of the educational decisions affecting Latino students take place at the state or local level, Hispanic organizations have a responsibility to become active, effective players in the state-local educational policy process. And where the local public educational system is failing to educate Hispanic children, then Latino community-based organizations – the single most powerful institutional force in the Hispanic community – have a responsibility to advocate for reform and help fill the gap themselves.

To complement these efforts, the growing Hispanic research community, like Latino advocacy groups, should broaden its horizons and help identify and implement practical policies and "best practices" that work for Latino students. And, most importantly, *every individual* in the Hispanic community, beginning with each student, has some constructive role s/he can play in promoting improvements in Latino educational achievement.

While Hispanics alone cannot eliminate the education gap between Latinos and other Americans, these disparities will not be reduced without heightened involvement by every sector of the Hispanic community. Public opinion polls of Hispanics consistently find that education is the single highest priority; it is now time to translate this attitude into action. This report identifies in great detail the specific challenges that need to be addressed in order to reduce or eliminate the "education gap"; the Latino community can provide the leadership, the example, the energy, and the determination required to get the job done. As Americans, and as Hispanics, the Latino community can do no less.

II. LATINO EDUCATION: EVERY AMERICAN'S RESPONSIBILITY

While the Latino community must take the lead in promoting improvements in Hispanic education, Latinos cannot shoulder the entire burden alone, nor should they. All Americans, and every sector of American society, will benefit from improvements in Hispanic education. It is thus incumbent on every American, and all organizations, institutions, and businesses, to join the Hispanic community in designing, identifying, advocating for, and implementing programs and policies to close the education gap between Latinos and other Americans.

Although forthcoming NCLR reports will identify in greater depth and detail the specific policy and program interventions needed to increase the educational achievements of Hispanics, the data cited herein provide some broad guidance regarding appropriate first steps. At the federal level, it is clear that Latinos do not benefit equitably from existing programs designed to increase the achievement of disadvantaged students. It is equally clear that neither the Administration nor the Congress has taken advantage of the opportunities they do have through the regulatory and legislative processes to address the education gap. Thus, NCLR believes that, at a minimum, the Administration and the Congress should take steps to assure that Hispanics are equitably served by every federal educational program and activity.

Current demographic changes taking place in the education professions at a time when Latinos remain severely underrepresented as teachers and administrators offer major new opportunities for addressing the education gap. The imminent retirement of the cohort of educational professionals in the "Baby Boom" generation, together with unexpectedly rapid growth in school enrollments and the "undervaluing" by society of the education profession in general have combined to produce a projected major shortage of educational professionals in the future. In this context, one critical step is to retain the few Hispanics already in the profession by assuring appropriate support and encouragement.

As a group, and as individuals, Latino teachers and other school personnel face formidable problems. Some work in heavily segregated schools with few resources, and others are among a handful of Hispanic teachers and administrators in a school or school system. Many are expected by the administration to act as de facto, unpaid translators, student advisors, and parent outreach personnel, in addition to their regular duties. Others are asked by parents and activists to serve, often at great professional peril, as advocates for the community as well. Enlightened administrators would do well to recognize, support, and compensate the extra burdens borne by these Latino professionals, and encourage rather than punish those courageous enough to serve as advocates. Similarly, the Hispanic community should actively support these professionals, seek ways to complement teachers' efforts in the home, and work with them as partners to strengthen ties between school and family.

Institutions of higher education have a greater role to play in strengthening the vital intellectual and human "infrastructure" upon which policy and program reforms needed to reduce the education gap will rest. At one level, colleges and universities serve as the training grounds for the nation's teachers and administrators; they can and should do more to promote a philosophy of high expectations among all future teachers and administrators, and recruit and train more Latinos for the education professions. On another level, such institutions must do more to support policy- and program-relevant research that can produce improvements in Hispanic educational outcomes. In this connection, many institutions of higher learning in fact are obstacles to increasing the volume and quality of Latino-focused education research by viewing such research as not "important enough" or on par with "mainstream" work. Similarly, much vital community-based research, including partnerships between scholars and Latino community educational institutions such as Head Start providers or charter schools, may not be viewed as "appropriate" academic endeavors; this despite the fact that such partnerships are essential to identifying and promoting effective "exemplary practices" required to increase Latino educational outcomes. Given the importance of improving Hispanic educational achievement to the nation's future economic security, such narrow-minded, archaic academic standards should be discarded.

Private philanthropy can play a particularly crucial role in shaping the future educational success of Hispanic students. Numerous studies have documented the failure of the philanthropic community to provide equitable levels of support to Latino institutions; nowhere is the need to reverse this historic failure more urgent than in the field of education. There are at least four major program areas that offer significant opportunities for funders to make a difference in the effort to improve Latino educational achievement. First, consistent with the traditional philanthropic role of identifying and promoting effective innovations, grantmakers should support greater efforts to disseminate and replicate "exemplary practices" in Hispanic education, including those identified in this report. Second, where such practices are not yet known, funders should support the kind of rigorous research, demonstration, and evaluation programs that can identify them. Third, to encourage more widespread adoption of effective practices, greater support needs to be provided to community organizers and advocates promoting education reform strategies at the state-local level. Finally, private philanthropy has an obligation to support community-based educational programs, including the rapidly growing Hispanic charter school movement, to prevent the loss of additional generations of Latino students in cities, such as those cited in this report, where the schools consistently fail to educate their Hispanic children.

Although much of this report documents the large, unacceptable "education gap" between Latinos and the rest of American society, the most important finding is that all Americans stand to gain from improvements in Hispanic educational achievement that are easily within the nation's grasp. Not only will such improvements help assure the country's future economic prosperity, they will also result in a social "windfall" for everyone - a more informed citizenry, a more cohesive society, stronger communities, and better neighborhoods. With this report, NCLR invites all Americans to translate this vision into reality by joining the Hispanic community in improving the status and prospects of Latino education.

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3. Statement of Dr. Jose Jaime Rivera, President, Association of Puerto Rico University Presidents, Hearings of the President's Advisory Committee on Educational Excellence for Hispanic Americans, San Juan, Puerto Rico, in McKay, Emily G., "Access Denied: Hispanics in the Education System," prepared for NCLR and the President's Advisory Commission, January 26, 1996, on file at NCLR, *unpublished*.
4. Johnson, William B., and Arnold J. Packer, *Workforce 2000: Work and Workers for the 21st Century*. Indianapolis, IN: Hudson Institute, June 1986.
5. Black, Sandra E. and Lisa M. Lynch, "Human Capital Investments and Productivity," American Economic Association Papers and Proceedings, Vol. 86, No. 2, May 1996.
6. Sorenson, Stephen, et. al., op cit. The authors note that these considerable increases in tax revenues would take place even in the absence of reductions in the "wage gap" between Hispanics and non-Hispanics.
7. *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform, a Report to the Nation and the Secretary of Education, United States Department of Education*. Washington, D.C.: National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983.
8. See August, Diane and Kenji Hakuta, *Educating Language Minority Children, Commission on Behavioral and Social Sciences and Education*, National Research Council. Washington, DC: National Academy Press, 1998. The report also found that most, but not all, programs that effectively teach language-minority children involve some use of native language, even when the primary language of instruction is English.
9. Romo, Harriet D. and T. Falbo, *Latino High School Graduation: Defying the Odds*. Austin, TX: University of Texas Press, 1996. These actions include: focus on student learning; meet basic needs; use a variety of teaching techniques; make material meaningful to students; make scholastic standards clear to all; allow no student to fail; use tests as milestones; make participation in school work more rewarding than skipping; make skipping difficult; value persistence and hard work; make schools accessible to parents; assume responsibility for educating all students; and mobilize resources to link school and work.
10. In *The Good Common School: Making the Vision Work for All Children* (Boston, MA, National Coalition of Advocates for Students, 1991), NCAS stated that children are entitled to: (1) have parents, advocates, and concerned educators involved in all decisions affecting their education; (2) learn in an integrated, heterogeneous setting responsive to different learning styles; (3) be given comprehensible, culturally supportive, and developmentally appropriate curriculum and teaching strategies; (4) have access to a common body of knowledge and the opportunity to acquire higher-order skills; (5) be given a broadly-based assessment of their academic progress and grading structures that enhance individual strength and potential; (6) have access to a broad range of support services that address individual needs; (7) attend schools that are safe, attractive, and free from prejudice; (8) attend school unless they pose a danger to other children or school staff; (9) receive instruction from teachers who hold high expectations for all students and who are fully prepared to meet the challenges of diverse classrooms; and (10) have access to an equal educational opportunity supported by the provision of greater resources to schools serving students most vulnerable to school failure.

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11. Larson, K. and R. Rumberger, "ALAS, Achievement for Latinos through Academic Success," in H. Thornton, ed., *Staying in School.* Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota, 1995. Evaluation of this model middle school intervention program identified four key elements of successful schools for Latinos: (1) Schools should be held accountable and should hold themselves accountable for growth and progress of all students; (2) School procedures, practices, and policies must be individualized and personalized for high-risk youth; (3) Effective middle school interventions for high-risk youth must address simultaneously the three contexts of family, school, and community through an independent, school-based, case management approach; and (4) System reforms of schools must not only change structures and practices, but, more importantly, must change adult attitudes and behaviors to be more compassionate and nurturing toward high-risk youth.

12. Secada, Walter G., et. al., *No More Excuses*, op. cit.

13. See, for example, statement of M. Beatriz Arias, testimony before the President's Advisory Commission on Educational Excellence for Hispanic Americans, cited in McKay, Emily G., "Access Denied: Hispanics in the Education System," op. cit. Ms. Arias reports on a study of eighth graders by the Academic Achievement Council in Los Angeles which noted that, while 100% of Asians and Pacific Islanders and 88% of Whites scoring in the top quartile in a standardized mathematics test were placed in college preparatory math, only 51% of African Americans and 42% of Latinos in the top quartile ended up in college prep math. Thus, even those Hispanics who do well on standardized tests appear to be steered away from courses needed for college preparation.

14. See, for example, Duncan, Greg J. and Jeanne Brooks-Gunn, eds., *Consequences of Growing Up Poor.* New York, NY: Russell Sage Foundation, 1997. This volume includes several analyses which address the influence of poverty, parent educational levels, family structure, and other factors on children's cognitive ability, classroom placement and behavior, educational achievement and attainment, and other outcomes.

15. Secada, Walter G., et. al., *No More Excuses*, op. cit.

16. Statement of Emily Palacios, Deputy Superintendent of Calexico Unified School District, testimony before the President's Advisory Commission on Educational Excellence for Hispanic Americans, in McKay, Emily G., "Access Denied: Hispanics in the Education System," op. cit. See, also, "A Clouded Example of Bilingual Success," *Los Angeles Times*, May 18, 1998.

17. See, for example, Bensman, David, *Quality Education in the Inner City: The Story of the Central Park East Schools.* New York, NY: Central Park East School, 1987; and Young, Timothy and Evans Clinchy, *Choice in Public Education.* New York, NY: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1992.

18. These data were supplied by Anthony Amato, Superintendent of Community School District Six.

19. Testimony of Anthony J. Trujillo, Superintendent, Ysleta Independent School District, *House Hearings*: Committee on Education and the Workforce, April 30, 1998.

20. Information in this box comes from the organizations themselves, some of which is cited in McKay, Emily G., "Access Denied: Hispanics in the Education System," op. cit., as well as information collected by NCLR's Center for Community Educational Excellence, which provides technical assistance to these and other community-based organizations operating education programs.

21. See letter from Lillian Gutierrez, Office of Civil Rights, U.S. Department of Education to Pam Martinez, Padres Unidos (a parent advocacy group), July 31, 1997. The letter states in pertinent part:

> Based on this investigation, OCR finds that the District discriminates against LEP students on the basis of national origin and disability by not providing them equal educational opportunity,

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in violation of Title VI, Section 504, and Title II (of the Civil Rights Act of 1964), and their implementing regulations.

22. Hispanic Education Advisory Council, "Report to the Board of Education." Denver, CO: Denver Public Schools, May 1997.
23. "DPS not so bad – for whites," *Denver Post*, April 13, 1998.
24. "Denver Schools Fight Back, The Issue: Federal Officials Denounce District's Bilingual Programs, Our View: They Appear Way Off Base," *Rocky Mountain News*, August 3, 1997.
25. *The Latino Blueprint for Action: Final Recommendations to the District of Columbia Government.* Washington, DC: DC Latino Civil Rights Task Force (now Latino Civil Rights Center), October 1991.
26. U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, *Racial and Ethnic Tensions in American Communities: Poverty, Inequality, and Discrimination.* Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, January 1993.
27. For example, according to "Status of DCPS Compliance with LM Identification and Assessment," A Report to the CEO's Advisory Committee on Diversity, March 17, 1997, there are about 8,600 language-minority students in the DC Public Schools. About 1,000 of these students "disappear" from DCPS rolls each year. Even assuming that the vast majority of these students are simply moving to other areas without notifying DCPS, these data imply a dropout rate exceeding 50%, well above the District average of 40%. Moreover, the Report notes that tests based on native language writing samples show that many language-minority students score below grade level, suggesting problems beyond English language comprehension. Finally, the report acknowledges that most schools have only a 50% compliance rate with their obligations under civil rights laws to complete a Home Language Survey for each student, a crucial step in developing individualized learning programs for these children.
28. "DC School Task Force Plans To Quit," *Washington Post*, March 19, 1998.
29. Pappas, Georgia, "Colorado's Growing Population (1990 to 2020)," *LARASA Report*, Latin American Research and Service Agency, November 1996.
30. Remarks by the Vice President at the release of the Hispanic Dropout Study report and announcement of the Administration's Hispanic Education Initiative, The White House, February 2, 1998.
31. Secada, Walter, et. al., *No More Excuses*, op. cit.
32. McKay, Emily G., "Access Denied: Hispanics in the Education System," op. cit.
33. Data in this box come from Rodriguez, Eric, "Hispanic Participation in Selected Federal Anti-Poverty Programs," Issue Brief, NCLR, July 1997; and Gonzalez, Raul, "Hispanic Participation in Federal TRIO Programs," Issue Brief, NCLR, April 1998.
34. Statement of Peter Roos, Multicultural Education, Training, and Advocacy, Inc., testimony before the President's Advisory Commission on Educational Excellence for Hispanic Americans, in McKay, Emily G., "Access Denied: Hispanics in the Education System," op. cit.
35. For example, the League of United Latin American Citizens and ASPIRA both operate Talent Search and Upward Bound programs designed to prepare disadvantaged children for higher education, and both organizations also carry out public policy and advocacy on education issues. The Mexican American Legal Defense and Educational Fund and the Puerto Rican Legal Defense Fund have substantial litigation, public policy, and advocacy programs on education and related issues. The National Puerto Rican Coalition

conducts public policy advocacy on education issues. The National Hispanic Scholarship Fund provides scholarships to Latino college students, and has recently adopted a research and policy focus as well. The Congressional Hispanic Caucus Institute provides extensive information on financial aid available to Hispanic college students. In addition to its research, public policy, and advocacy activity, NCLR operates the Center for Community Educational Excellence, which supports a wide variety of community-based educational programs including after-school enrichment, Head Start and other early childhood development initiatives, alternative and charter schools, and literacy promotion for adults and out-of-school youth. Moreover, through its Leadership Development Initiative, NCLR has begun to support a number of promising community-based research, policy advocacy, and community organizing activities at the state-local level focused principally or exclusively on education policy issues.

36. For example, the California Latino Civil Rights Network, a coalition of community-based organizations concentrated principally in northern California, played a major role in training Latino community leaders to participate effectively in the public debate over California Ballot proposition 227, the so-called Unz Initiative. In Denver, *Padres Unidos*, a parent advocacy organization, has become an important player in a major school reform debate centered on the school system's treatment of language minority children. In Washington, D.C., a new coalition, Capital Area Language Minority Advocates (CALMA), appears to be an emerging force in promoting improvements in services to limited English proficient students in the District, the majority of whom are Latino.

37. See, for example, "Education Bazaar," *U.S. News and World Report*, April 27, 1998.

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